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GENDER INTEGRATION IN THE CANADIAN FORCES - A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS

by

L. Tanner

APRIL 1999

OTTAWA, CANADA

National Defence Défense nationale

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ORD REPORT 9901
GENDER INTEGRATION IN THE CANADIAN FORCES
- A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS

1. The enclosed report provides a synopsis of female participation in the Regular Force of the Canadian Forces (CF). A 1989 Canadian Human Rights Tribunal ordered the CF to open all areas of employment, with the exception of submarine service, to women within ten years. Although restrictions on the employment of women in the CF were removed almost immediately, the downsizing efforts of the Regular Force have limited significant progress in female representation rates. To properly understand how female participation in the CF has changed since 1989, other factors such as enrolment, training, occupational distributions, career progression, attrition, attitudes towards gender integration, and harassment must be examined. The aim of this report is to provide a quantitative and qualitative analysis of these factors affecting gender integration in the CF.

2. Any comments or questions concerning this work should be directed to the author, Mrs. L. Tanner, DMGIEE 3-8, at 996-2220.

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ORD REPORT R9901

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by

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OTTAWA, ONTARIO APRIL 1999

ABSTRACT

A 1989 Canadian Human Rights Tribunal ordered the Canadian Forces to open all areas of employment, with the exception of submarine service, to women within ten years. Although restrictions on the employment of women in the Canadian Forces were removed almost immediately after the 1989 Canadian Human Rights Tribunal decision, the downsizing efforts of the Regular Force have limited significant progress in female representation rates. To properly understand how female participation in the Canadian Forces has changed since 1989, other factors such as enrolment, training, occupational distributions, career progression, attrition, attitudes towards gender integration, and harassment must be examined. The aim of this report is to provide a quantitative and qualitative analysis of these factors affecting gender integration in the Canadian Forces.

RÉSUMÉ

Un Tribunal canadien des droits de la personne en 1989 a ordonné aux Forces canadiennes d'ouvrir aux femmes tous les domaines d'emploi, sauf le service à bord des sous-marins, sur une période de dix ans. Bien que les restrictions à l'emploi des femmes dans les Forces canadiennes aient disparues presque immédiatement après la décision du Tribunal canadien des droits de la personne de 1989, les efforts de réduction de la Force régulière ont limité tout progrès important du taux de représentation des femmes. Pour bien comprendre comment la participation des femmes a changé dans les Forces canadiennes depuis 1989, il faut considérer d'autres facteurs tels l'enrôlement, l'entraînement, les distributions professionnelles, la progression de carrière, l'attrition, les attitudes envers l'intégration des sexes et le harcèlement. Le but de ce rapport est de fournir une analyse quantitative et qualitative de ces facteurs qui affectent l'intégration des sexes dans les Forces canadiennes.

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Introduction. A 1989 Canadian Human Rights Tribunal ordered the Canadian Forces (CF) to open all areas of employment, with the exception of submarine service, to women within ten years. Although restrictions on the employment of women in the CF were removed almost immediately after the 1989 Canadian Human Rights Tribunal decision, the downsizing efforts of the Regular Force have limited significant progress in female representation rates. To properly understand how female participation in the CF has changed since 1989, other factors such as recruitment, training, occupational distributions, career progression, attrition, attitudes towards gender integration, and harassment must be examined. The aim of this report is to provide a quantitative and qualitative analysis of these factors affecting gender integration in the CF.

Female Representation Rates. The numbers of both women and men were well below 1989 levels by 1998 due to downsizing. Female representation rates were at 11.8% for officers and 10.5% for non-commissioned members (NCMs) as of 1 January 1998, only marginally higher than the rates observed in 1989 (9.3% for officers and 10.0% for NCMs). Not surprisingly, female representation rates tend to be higher in the lower ranks and in the traditional areas of employment for women, such as Medical/Dental and Support military occupations (MOCs).

Recruitment. The CF is an all-volunteer force, so it must compete with educational institutions and other employers in the labour market to attract and maintain required levels of personnel. The Canadian public generally has a positive impression of the CF, but only a very small proportion are interested and likely to join the CF. Women tend to be less familiar with the CF and its employment opportunities than are men.

Female representation among applicants is slightly lower than that of the eligible, recruitable population which has expressed an interest in joining the CF. Female applicants tend to be better educated and slightly younger, but have less previous military experience and less interest in joining the Regular Force vice the Reserve Force than their male counterparts. CF recruiters appear to have lost some influence in attracting applicants, as a friend or relative with CF experience is now the most influential source of information in the decision to enroll, particularly for women.

A higher percentage of male applicants are accepted into the CF than female applicants. This may suggest the possibility of selection barriers, but it could also be related to a possible reluctance of female applicants to accept employment in non-traditional MOCs. A higher withdrawal rate by female applicants tends to support this hypothesis. A new aptitude test was introduced in 1997 to help screen applicants because previous screening tests were found to have gender biases. Although women have similar scores as men at officer selection boards, they do not receive offers at the same rate. The type of MOC may again be an influencing factor in these results.

Downsizing efforts since the early 1990's have had a significant impact on the enrolment patterns for women as well as men, both on the overall numbers enrolled and the type of occupations open for recruitment. Since gender integration efforts depend in part on the effective recruitment of women into all areas, trends in enrolment should continue to be monitored closely. Increased recruiting goals have been recently established for women, but it is too early to determine if these goals will be met. If they are, there could be substantial progress made in increasing female representation rates, particularly if the higher attrition rates for women are also addressed.

Training. A greater percentage of female members of the CF are in the training system as compared with their male counterparts, particularly in the operational environments. Although there appears to be no significant difference in the overall pass rates of successful male and female enrollees, women tend to face greater challenges. The combat arms environment remains particularly problematic. Women now account for 25% of the cadet population at the Royal Military College (RMC), but face challenges related to self-perception, the significance of male sports programs, and social factors. The key in graduating more officers from the Regular Officer Training Program (ROTP) and RMC is not solely going to be achieved by increasing awareness of the program. While enhancing awareness can be an important component, a more effective mechanism is the selection of candidates for whom the role of military officer is their chosen occupation. In doing this, it will be important to focus efforts on women since they are more likely than men to view the ROTP as a way to have a career in the military. Men are more likely to view the ROTP as a way to receive a subsidized education. In the analysis of attitudes of officer cadets at RMC, it is interesting to note that the major differences are not gender based, but rather based on the amount of time served at RMC. The decline in attitudes over time, which is closely linked with the intention of the officer cadet to remain in the military at the conclusion of the period of obligatory service, should be addressed.

Occupational Analysis. The MOC group distributions differ by gender, with the majority of men in the operational MOC groups and the majority of women in the support type of MOC groups. The downsizing efforts of the Regular Force in conjunction with the CF's focus on its operational capabilities have increased the proportion of both men and women in the operational MOC groups. However, a recent study has shown that there are gender differences in vocational interests. Although an applicant may have an aptitude for a given MOC, they may not want to serve in that occupation because of gender-based differences in the perception of that MOC. Thus, a favourable combination of aptitude, interest and occupational attractiveness could result in a better match between individuals and the MOCs to which they are assigned. Women tend to transfer MOCs more than would be expected based on the number of occupational transfers for men, which may indicate an effort on the part of the CF to retain these women rather than have them leave the military or a failure on the part of the recruiting system to adequately match women's interests with the appropriate occupation at the selection stage. Gender inequity does not appear to be a primary deterrent for female Reserve Force members to transfer to the Regular Force, but women are generally less likely to consider such a transfer than their male counterparts.

Operational Experience. There has been an improvement in the equitable assignment of tasks to women and men in both static and operational units. Women have participated in peacekeeping operations and served in the Persian Gulf War with distinction. However, some limitations still apparently exist. There are currently no female fighter pilots and the problems associated with women in the combat arms continue to persist.

Career Progression. There are more senior ranking women in the CF today than there were in 1989. This is encouraging since the CF has been undergoing substantial downsizing during this period. However, the rate of progress of women into the senior ranks of Major and above for officers and Sergeant and above for NCMs is not generally comparable to that of their male counterparts. Overall trends indicate that average promotion rates tend to be higher for men than they are for women. It is recommended that problematic MOCs are further analyzed to determine possible causes and whether there are systemic barriers for women in these MOCs. Female representation in the senior ranks will not increase substantially if there is not equitable career progression for both men and women.

During the development phase of the new CF appraisal system, it was reviewed for gender bias. Although the language of the form and instructions were free of gender bias, some of the assessment factors could have an adverse impact on women. Most of the concerns were taken into account in the final version. Female participation in the CF Command and Staff College increased substantially in 1997 due to a special program which is aimed at correcting a previous systemic barrier which impacted on women's competitiveness for selection to the College. On the other hand, female NCMs tend to receive fewer commissions from the ranks than do male NCMs, and this may need to be studied further.

Attrition. Retention of women in the CF, particularly in the more non-traditional occupations, is a critical factor in achieving full gender integration. As the CF approaches the 1999 deadline of the Canadian Human Rights Tribunal, it should be of some concern that women are leaving the CF at a generally higher rate than men. If current efforts to increase the recruitment of women are to have the desired effect of raising female representation levels, they must be accompanied by actions to identify and address the causes of higher female attrition. Research has been sketchy as to why women are leaving the CF, but preliminary results indicate that men and women are leaving for similar reasons. Further research has to be undertaken in this area. It has been suggested that although CF policies and regulations are evolving in attempts to integrate women, the expèrience of women as 'women within a male-dominated organization' contribute significantly to their attrition from the military.

Attitudes Towards Gender Integration. There remain problems with the attitudes of service-members towards full gender integration. Overall, members of the CF support the employment of women in all environments and roles, as well as CF policies and training that have been put in place to support gender integration; however,

men are less likely than women to support these ideas. Women are more likely to have been discriminated against based on their gender, and they generally have a lower work morale than men. The Army is the least supportive of full gender integration, equity and multiculturalism; and men in the combat arms are more likely to perceive women as 'another problem' to be dealt with, rather than a resource that needs to be developed. Plans to monitor attitudes towards the full employment of women in the CF have been developed by each environment.

Harassment. Harassment and gender discrimination persist in the CF, despite efforts to eradicate it. A number of initiatives in response to the current concerns with respect to sexual harassment and sexual assault are being pursued, and a harassment policy review intended to review and consolidate all aspects of policy and practice is being undertaken. The impact of the Standard for Harassment and Racism Prevention (SHARP) program has yet to be determined, particularly in relation to the results of a recent harassment survey expected to be released in early 1999. Harassment on the basis of gender hinders the efforts to fully integrate women in the CF.

Physical Fitness Standards. Physical fitness standards remain a point of discussion. Many CF members think that because the predictive standards of the CF EXPRES test are lower for women, women are less fit than men. This is not true - women are required to meet the same pass/fail criteria for the five common military tasks. However, because of physiological differences between men and women, the predictive standards are different. The requirement for occupation-specific physical standards has been identified numerous times over the years, but the cost of completing the occupational physical selection standards (OPSS) project is prohibitively expensive and so it has been indefinitely postponed.

Critical Mass Concept. The positive benefits of a critical mass have not been established in the research literature. Inter-group dynamics are more complex than a simple numerical influence or solution, so it is unknown how many women or what proportion of women will create a situation which actually contributes to the improved success and retention rate of women in the CF.

Integration Theory. Gender integration in the CF relies on the military to value the cultural identity and characteristics of women and to establish effective working relationships between men and women. Acceptance of servicewomen by servicemen is a necessary requirement for the successful fulfillment of unit objectives and the maintenance of operational effectiveness. Creating an accepting atmosphere can be accomplished in a number of ways, including having effective leadership and educating both men and women about integration.

Conclusions & Recommendations. A 1989 Canadian Human Rights Tribunal ordered the CF to open all areas of employment, with the exception of submarine service, to women within ten years. Although restrictions on the employment of women in the CF were removed almost immediately after the Tribunal decision, the downsizing efforts of the Regular Force have limited significant progress in female representation rates. The

numbers of both women and men are currently well below 1989 levels. Despite efforts to fully integrate women, particularly in recent years, there are still problems concerning gender integration in the CF. Quantitatively speaking, preliminary results indicate that female applicants are not enrolled at the same rate as male applicants; promotion rates for the senior ranks are not equitable for men and women; and attrition rates are higher for women than for men. Qualitatively speaking, men have less positive attitudes towards gender integration than women and harassment remains an issue.

Although a great deal of analysis, both quantitative and qualitative, has been conducted on the issue of gender integration in the CF, it is recommended that further analysis be conducted on some of the problem areas identified in this study:

a. a further examination of disposition data to confirm if men are indeed accepted into the CF at a greater rate than women, and if so, why;

b. an analysis of the impact of the increased recruitment goals for women on female representation rates;

c. a further review of officer selection board results to see if there are any differences in the rate of offers by MOC for men and women;

d. a further examination of matching the aptitude and occupational interests of applicants with occupational attractiveness ratings to improve selection methods;

e. an analysis of training failure rates by gender and MOC type to determine if there are any gender differences;

f. a systems review of the career progression system to determine why women are not being promoted into the senior ranks at the same rate as men in some occupational areas; and

g. the completion of the analysis of why members leave the CF, examining possible differences by gender and MOC.

Continued monitoring of recruitment, promotion and attrition data is essential in identifying any new problems that may arise. Attitudinal and harassment surveys should also be administered on a regular basis to capture any significant changes. As well, the Navy, Army and Air Force all have individual studies underway on issues specifically affecting each of the environments, and the results of these studies should also be considered.

The impact of issues related to maternity, parenting and family support on career progression needs to be analyzed. In particular, a study needs to be done on the impact of taking maternity/parental leave on personnel evaluation reports (PERs), promotions and

engagement conversion offers. As well, research needs to be conducted on the impact of operational employment on pregnancy.

Finally, it should be remembered that this study does not include an analysis of gender integration in the Primary Reserves. The lack of a reliable, centralized data source makes such analysis virtually impossible at this time. In the future, when a centralized database for the Primary Reserves is developed, this type of analysis should be conducted.

GENDER INTEGRATION IN THE CANADIAN FORCES - A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS

I - INTRODUCTION

Background

1. A 1989 Canadian Human Rights Tribunal ordered the Canadian Forces (CF) to open all areas of employment to women within ten years. As part of the Tribunal Order, internal and external monitoring of gender integration in the CF was recommended. The internal monitoring function has included the maintenance of statistical records and research on issues related to gender integration.

Aim

2. The aim of this report is to provide a quantitative and qualitative analysis of gender integration in the Regular Force of the CF since 1989.

Scope

3. To provide an analysis of gender integration in the Regular Force, a number of issues are examined in this report, including female representation, recruitment, career progression, and attrition. Participation in the junior ranks is directly related to recruitment, while participation in the senior ranks is a reflection of career progression. Attrition plays a role throughout the process. Historical trend analyses of each of these areas are presented with the results of related qualitative analyses. A section which describes female participation in the CF prior to 1989 is also included to provide a historical perspective of significant events and legislation that have affected the participation of women in the military over time.

Methodology

4. The historical trend analyses contained in this report are based on data which were extracted from the Military Personnel Information System (MPIS) prior to its conversion to the PeopleSoft system. For static analyses, such as those conducted on female representation rates, snapshot data as of the first of January of each year from 1989 to 1998 were collected. For analyses of career flows, such as enrolments, promotions, and releases, data for each calendar year between 1989 and 1997 were collected. All of the data extracted were compiled by gender, officer or non-commissioned member (NCM) status and military occupation (MOC). In an effort to summarize some of the information, occupational groups have been used in the discussion rather than individual MOCs. A description of the MOC groups is contained in Annex A.

5. The qualitative analyses used in this study were conducted mainly by the Directorate of Human Resource Research and Evaluation (DHRRE) (formerly known as the Personnel Research Team (PRT) or the Canadian Forces Personnel Applied Research Unit (CFPARU))[1]. These studies help to provide some enlightenment into the reasons for the quantitative trends observed, and they also suggest other issues which may require further research.

Limitation

6. This study does not include an analysis of gender integration in the Primary Reserves. The lack of a reliable, centralized data source makes such analysis virtually impossible at this time. In the future, when a centralized database for the Primary Reserves is developed, this type of analysis should be conducted.

[1] The Canadian Forces Personnel Applied Research Unit (CFPARU) became the Personnel Research Team (PRT) in 1995 and has most recently changed its name to the Directorate of Human Resources Research and Evaluation (DHRRE) in 1998.

II - HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE (1885-1989)

Early Military Involvement

7. Women have officially served as members of Canada's military for over one hundred years. Their involvement in military history can actually be dated back to 1692 when 14 year old Madeleine de Vercheres led a defence of the fort at Vercheres, New France against a Mohawk attack for two days during the early fur trading wars between the French and the Americans (Davis, 1996). There was also Laura Secord's heroic act in warning British officers of an impending American attack during the War of 1812. It was not, however, until 1885 that women were officially recognized for the first time as members of a military force in Canada.

Canadian Military Nursing Sisters

8. The first recognized female members of the Canadian military were nurses, who served with Canadian troops during the Northwest Rebellion in 1885. As a result, the Canadian Army Nursing Service was organized in 1899. Nurses once again supported the Canadian military during the Boer War, during which they became a permanent part of the Royal Canadian Army Medical Corps and were admitted to the Regular Force of the Canadian military in 1906 (Davis, 1996).

World War I

9. Over 2,800 women served with the Royal Canadian Army Medical Corps between 1914 and 1918, with the majority serving overseas in hospitals, on board hospital ships in several theatres of war and in combat zones with field ambulance units (Tribunal, 1989). World War I also saw the first organization of women in a military capacity other than nurses. Canadian women organized 'paramilitary groups, outfitted themselves in military style uniforms, and undertook training in military drill, rifle shooting, first aid and vehicle maintenance' in case they might be required as home guards (Davis, 1996).

World War II

10. Almost 5,000 nurses served in the Army, Navy and Air Force Medical Corps during the Second World War, overseas in hospitals, casualty stations near combat zones, mobile field hospitals and in many theatres of war, but not on ships, aircraft or in the infantry (Tribunal, 1989). In 1941, the government decided to enroll female volunteers for full time military service other than nursing in order to release medically fit men for combat duty. All three services established women's divisions, and the range of duties broadened during the war from the more traditional trades of clerks, cooks, drivers and telephone operators to mechanics, parachute riggers, driving heavy mobile equipment and flying aircraft. Women could enroll if they were between the ages of 18 and 45 and possessed a minimum grade eight education. Married women could also enroll, but

women with dependent children were not eligible for service (Davis, 1996). Nearly 50,000 women had served in the three women's divisions by the end of World War II, at which time the women's divisions were disbanded. Government vocational training programs for ex-servicewomen emphasized pre-war traditional roles, as most post-war planners believed that 'for most women, the primary roles should be the dual one of wife and mother, a role not to be combined, except in the direst of circumstances, with paid employment outside of the home' (Davis, 1996).

Korean War

11. Women were once again recruited for military service when Canadian military personnel were committed to the Korean War effort. By 1951, the government had approved the enrolment of women into the Regular Force component of the Air Force as well as a female component for the Army and Navy Reserves where women could serve on a full time basis under the terms of usually a three year contract (Davis, 1996). Over 5,000 women were in service by 1955 (Tribunal, 1989).

Post-War Employment of Women

12. After the Korean War, the authorized establishment for women in the Air Force was limited to 2,500. The Army and the Navy began to recruit women into their Regular Force components as well, but they had very modest limits of 400 and 90 respectively. Female recruitment into the Air Force was terminated in 1963, and the number of women in the Air Force dropped to just over 500. In 1965, a government decision was made to continue to employ women in the CF and a fixed ceiling of 1,500 which would include women in all three services was established (Davis, 1996). At the time, the limit of 1,500 women represented roughly 1.5% of the total force.

13. During this period, only single women were enrolled, and women were required to take their release when they became pregnant. Servicewomen were also released when they married, although exceptions to this regulation were made (Davis, 1996). Between 1965 and 1971, women were employed as radio operators, administrative clerks, nursing assistants, x-ray technicians, finance clerks, personnel and defence coordinators, teletype operators, radar plotters, operating room assistants, dental assistants and supply technicians. The small number of trades open to women was justified by several reasons. It was uneconomical to train women for trades requiring long and expensive training because they had on average a shorter length of service than men. Many trades open only to men were in the combat arms or at sea where women were not allowed to serve. Women had to be placed in trades which were common enough that groups of at least 35 would be stationed at a base to justify the expense of special quarters, facilities and supervision. As well, while the rate of pay was the same for men and women, most women worked in trades with lower pay scales (Tribunal, 1989).

Royal Commission on the Status of Women

14. The Royal Commission on the Status of Women's 1970 report recommended changes necessary to provide a climate of equal opportunity for women in Canada, with six recommendations aimed specifically at the CF. The Commission sought standardization of enrolment criteria, equal pension benefits for women and men, the opportunity for women to attend Canadian Military Colleges, the opening of all trades and officer classifications to women, and the termination of regulations which prohibited the enrolment of married women and required release of servicewomen on the birth of a child (Davis, 1996). In 1971, restrictions were removed from the enrolment of married women, women who gave birth to a child were no longer required to be released, women could be enrolled in the Regular Officer Training Program (ROTP) which involved subsidization of a university degree at a civilian university, and there would be no limitations on the employment of women 'other than in the primary combat role, at some remote locations and at sea' (Davis, 1996). The CF would not lift the restriction on women at the military colleges because graduates supplied the combat officer cadre (Tribunal, 1989).

15. In 1974, the CF conducted a review of the educational and physical requirements for each of the 105 NCM and 32 officer MOCs, which produced numerous recommendations for changes to requirements based on gender. As a result, two thirds of the MOCs were, in principle, made accessible to women. Approximately 30,000 positions were theoretically open to both sexes while 40,000 were limited to men only because of restrictions on the employment of women established by the Defence Council and for personnel reasons such as the maintenance of a good sea/shore ratio (Tribunal, 1989). In 1975, amendments were made to the Canadian Forces Superannuation Act, making pension contributions and benefits the same for women and men (Davis, 1996).

Canadian Human Rights Act

16. The Canadian Human Rights Act of 1978 prohibits discrimination in employment on the grounds of race, national or ethnic origin, colour, religion, age, marital status, family status, disability, convictions for which pardons have been granted, and gender. The Act states that, in part, 'sex is not a permissible reason for discrimination unless it is based on a bona fide occupational requirement' (Lamerson, 1989a). The lack of a statutory definition for "bona fide occupational requirement" triggered a review of employment policies and the consideration of a number of factors, such as the effect of unrestricted employment of women on operational capabilities, possible conflict between individual rights and national security, medical considerations affecting employment in operational roles (e.g. physical strength and stamina), costs of unrestricted employment of women (benefits, rates of absenteeism, equipment changes), difficulties in recruiting in the last decades of the century, and attitudes of personnel and their spouses and the Canadian public towards unrestricted employment of servicewomen (Tribunal, 1989). As a result, the restriction on admitting women to the Canadian Military Colleges was lifted and a five-year trial to determine the impact on operational effectiveness of employing women in sea, land, and air near combat units and at an isolated military installation was

initiated. For the purposes of the trial, "near combat" units were defined as those units which were not expected to directly engage enemy/hostile forces. Implicit in the definition, however, was the understanding that such units could come under attack in time of conflict.

SWINTER Trials

17. The Servicewomen in Non-Traditional Environments and Roles (SWINTER) trials took place between 1979 and 1985, during which two specific evaluations were conducted. First, operational commanders of the trial units were to assess the servicewomen's overall impact on unit operational effectiveness; and second, a social/behavioural science evaluation was to determine 'the human consequences, if any, of introducing servicewomen into previously exclusive male roles and environments'. In 1980, roughly 75 CF servicewomen began serving, on a trial basis, at previously all-male, non-combat or near-combat operational units. By 1985, approximately 280 women had collectively served six-month tours at an isolated northern station, two-year postings at sea aboard a diving tender, four-year postings in the field with two combat service support units, and as aircrew at five transport or search and rescue squadrons. Overall, findings of the social/behavioural science evaluation indicated that the employment of servicewomen in such new roles was feasible, although acceptance of social integration did vary between environments (Park, 1986).

Canadian Charter of Rights and Freedoms

18. During the SWINTER trial period, Canadian legislation on human rights and freedoms continued to evolve. In 1982, the Charter of Rights and Freedoms was incorporated into the Canadian Constitution. Equality Rights contained in the Charter require 'the state to have a rational and fair basis for distinctions that it makes among persons or classes of persons, particularly on the grounds of race, national or ethnic origin, colour, religion, sex, age or mental or physical disability' (Lamerson, 1989a). In 1985, a Parliamentary Committee on Equality Rights issued a report to Parliament entitled *Equality for All*, with recommendations that all trades and occupations in the CF be open to women. These findings were based on testimony from women in the CF, both past and serving, senior officers from defence headquarters and several women's organizations. The Committee believed that excluding women from so many job opportunities, most of them related to combat in an indirect way, had adverse consequences: it closed many well-paid jobs after military service to women because military training was not available to them; it hindered their promotions in the CF because they lacked experience in occupations and units that were combat-linked; and it excluded them from experience and training in leadership (Tribunal, 1989).

CF Charter Task Force

19. Subsequent to the 1985 report on equality rights, a Canadian Forces Charter Task Force on Equality Issues was established. Its mandate was: to review the effect of the Charter on CF policies concerning the employment of women, sexual orientation,

mandatory retirement, physical and mental disability and marital status; to examine relevant material, such as the SWINTER trial results; and to develop options so as to meet the government's objectives for the enhancement of individual rights and freedoms (Tribunal, 1989). After reviewing the SWINTER results and employment policies, the Task Force recommended an additional 14 MOCs be opened to women and that several previously all-male units be open to women already employed in mixed gender occupations. Three quarters of all MOCs were now open to women. The Task Force also recommended that a program be developed to provide detailed policy guidance and leadership training concerning mixed-gender employment and that new environmental support measures, such as compatibility of equipment, spousal education, pregnancy leave and replacement, be initiated (Tribunal, 1989).

20. The mandate of the CF Charter Task Force also included a review of the remaining combat occupations and environments closed to women. CFPARU[1] conducted surveys of male and female members as to their intentions to serve in combat MOCs and the attitudes of servicemen toward women serving in these areas. It was concluded that there was insufficient evidence of adverse impact on operational effectiveness to preclude consideration of some further expansion of mixed gender employment. Further trials were recommended to provide an evaluation of employing women in the remaining single-gender male occupations and environments (Lamerson, 1989a).

CREW Trials

21. In 1987, the Combat Related Employment of Women (CREW) trials were announced for selected infantry, artillery, armoured, signals, and field engineering units in the Army and a destroyer in the Navy. The Air Force announced at this time that no further trials were required and that all areas of employment, including fighter pilots, were now open to women. For the Army and the Navy, there was to be a one-year integration period so female soldiers and sailors could acclimatize to the combat work-setting and then there would be a two year evaluation period where mixed-gender units would be compared with single-gender male units to identify any differences in operational effectiveness (Lamerson, 1989b and 1989c). The evaluation component of these trials was never started due to the 1989 Canadian Human Rights Tribunal.

Canadian Human Rights Tribunal

22. The Canadian Human Rights Tribunal regarding employment in the CF was brought about by four complainants, three women who alleged that because of their sex they were denied training for or entry into positions that were designated combat-related and one man who alleged that excluding women from combat positions discriminated against men because men were required to take more risks. After hearings held between 1986 and 1988, the Tribunal found that the CF's practice of designating certain specific occupations and units as male-only was a discriminatory practice. The Tribunal therefore ordered in 1989:

a. the CF CREW trials were to continue but not be regarded as trials but rather the lead-up or preparation for full integration;

b. full integration was to take place with all due speed, as a matter of principle and practice, for both active and reserve forces (with the exception of submarine service where privacy was a dominating factor);

c. the implementation of the principle required the removal of all restrictions from both operational and personnel considerations, the minimum male requirements were to be phased out, and new occupational personnel selection standards were to be imposed immediately;

d. there was to be internal and external monitoring of the policy with appropriate modifications being made immediately; and

e. the CF and the Canadian Human Rights Commission (CHRC) were to devise a mutually acceptable implementation plan so that the integration of women proceeded steadily, regularly and consistently towards the goal of complete integration of women within the next ten years (Tribunal, 1989).

Minister's Advisory Board on Women in the Canadian Forces

23. The Minister's Advisory Board on Women in the Canadian Forces (MABWCF) (later named the Minister's Advisory Board on Gender Integration in the Canadian Forces (MABGICF)) was established by the Minister of National Defence (MND) in February 1990 to perform the external monitoring function specified in the Human Rights Tribunal decision. The Board originally consisted of nine civilian and retired military members, and was quite active until April 1994 when its activities were curtailed at the MND's direction. Following an 18-month hiatus, the Board was reactivated with a five-member team and resumed its external monitoring role. Then, in November 1996, the Minister's office directed an immediate pause in the Board's activities to allow another review of its activities and membership. Only recently, in November 1998, has the Board been re-created. It is now the Minister's Advisory Board on Canadian Forces Gender Integration and Employment Equity. This Board will continue to monitor and advise regarding the progress of integration of women in the CF as directed by the Tribunal, but it will also assume a new advisory role in assisting the CF's senior leadership to implement employment equity in the Regular and Reserve Forces.

Employment Equity Act

24. The Employment Equity Act, whose purpose is to achieve equality in the workplace so that no person shall be denied employment opportunities or benefits for reasons unrelated to ability and, in the fulfillment of that goal, to correct conditions of disadvantage in employment experienced by women, Aboriginal peoples, persons with disabilities and members of visible minorities, was proclaimed in 1996. The CF is

included in this Act and will be officially required to comply once the CF Employment Equity Regulations have been approved by an Order-in-Council.

Summary

25. Since the Tribunal decision in 1989, the CF has made progress in integrating women into all areas of employment, with the exclusion of submarine service. The following sections contain a quantitative and qualitative analysis of the progress to date on issues affecting gender integration in the Regular Force of the CF.

III - FEMALE REPRESENTATION RATES

Impact of Downsizing

26. Although restrictions on the employment of women in the CF were removed almost immediately after the 1989 Canadian Human Rights Tribunal decision, the downsizing efforts of the Regular Force have limited significant progress in female representation rates[2]. The 1989 Federal Budget imposed restrictions on the CF that have been reflected in strength reductions since that time. Initially, the CF controlled its size by limited recruitment and imposed controls on engagement conversions. However, with the continued cuts in establishment, special measures had to be introduced, called the Force Reduction Programs (FRPs). FRPs were implemented for NCMs from 1992 to 1996 and for officers from 1994 to 1996.

Total Regular Force

27. As shown in Figure 1 and summarized in Table I, the numbers of both men and women in the Regular Force in 1998 were at levels lower than those in 1989. Whereas the number of men dropped over the entire period, the number of women increased until 1991 and then began to decrease. The earlier reduction in the number of men was a result of male releases exceeding male enrolments from 1989 onwards. This did not occur for women until a few years later.

Table I: Changes in the Total Regular Force Strength of the CF

	1989	1998	% CHANGE
# OF WOMEN	8,641	6,664	-22.9%
# OF MEN	79,056	55,158	-30.2%
TOTAL	87,697	61,822	-29.5%
FEMALE REPRESENTATION	9.9%	10.8%	

28. The female representation rate increased from 9.9% of the total strength as of 1 January 1989 to 11.1% in 1994, and then fell to 10.7% by 1997. Between 1997 and 1998 the rate increased slightly, to 10.8% as of 1 January 1998. This overall trend has been primarily influenced by the female representation rate for NCMs, which experienced a decline when limited recruiting during the CF's downsizing efforts focussed mainly on the combat arms. In comparison, the female representation rate for officers steadily increased between 1989 and 1998.

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[2] The female representation rate is calculated as the number of women divided by the total number of men and women, expressed as a percentage. This measurement is based on the total strength of the Regular Force of the CF.

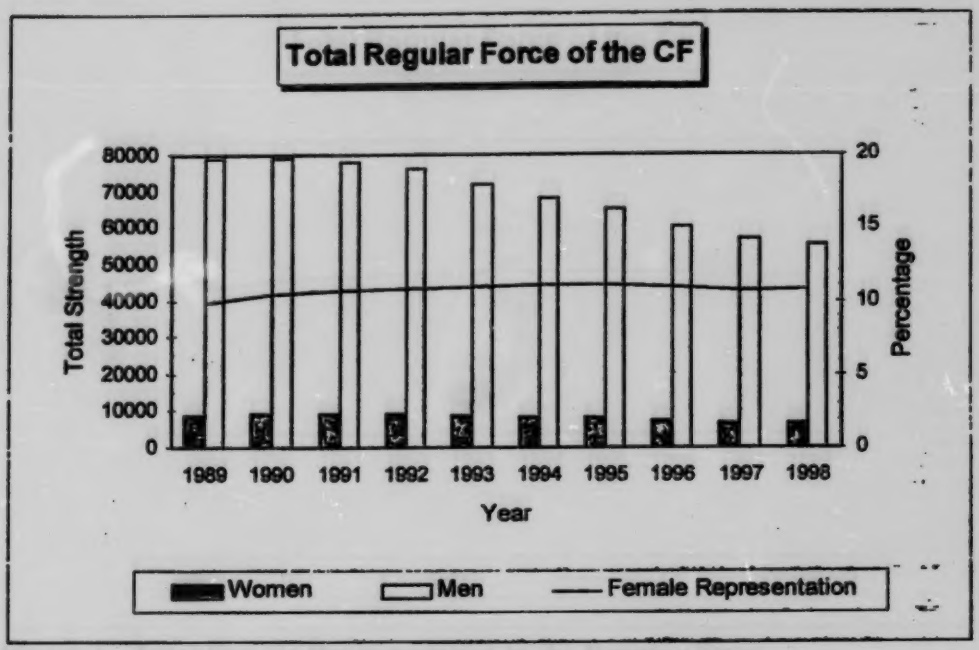

Figure 1 - Total Female Representation in the Regular Force

Officer Component

29. The total numbers of both male and female officers in 1998 were at levels lower than those in 1989 (Table II). Whereas the total number of male officers increased only for the first year of the period, the total number of female officers grew until 1994 and then began to drop. The longer period of growth in the number of female officers combined with the larger decrease in the number of male officers resulted in the total female representation rate for the officer component steadily increasing over the period, from 9.3% in 1989 to 11.8% in 1998.

Table II: Changes in the Regular Force Officer Strength of the CF

	1989	1998	% CHANGE
# OF WOMEN	1,718	1,563	-9.0%
# OF MEN	16,747	11,726	-30.0%
TOTAL	18,465	13,289	-28.0%
FEMALE REPRESENTATION	9.3%	11.8%	

30. Not unexpectedly, female officer representation rates generally decrease with rank (Table III). It takes considerable time in a front-end loaded system, such as the CF, to produce officers in the senior ranks. It is hypothesized that integration will not be

complete until representation is equitable through the ranks (Bender et al, 1994a; Bender et al, 1994b). However, all of the female representation rates by rank share a similar trend, increasing between 1989 and 1998. The increases seen in the female representation rates at the junior officer ranks (Officer Cadet to Captain) were caused by greater reductions in the number of male junior officers than female junior officers during the limited recruiting period in the early to mid-1990's. The increases in the female representation rates at the senior officer ranks (Major to Colonel) were the result of the number of female senior officers increasing while the number of male senior officers decreased. (For the specific numbers of women and men at each officer rank, please refer to the section on career progression.)

Table III: Female Representation Rates in the Regular Force Officer Ranks

	1989	1998
COLONEL	1.3%	2.3%
LIEUTENANT COLONEL	0.7%	2.7%
MAJOR	3.2%	5.7%
CAPTAIN	10.1%	12.6%
LIEUTENANT	14.4%	18.8%
SECOND LIEUTENANT	12.6%	19.3%
OFFICER CADET	14.6%	21.9%
TOTAL	9.3%	11.8%

31. Female representation rates in the officer component vary substantially by MOC group, but all groups (with the exception of the Medical/Dental MOC group) showed an increase in their female representation rates between 1989 and 1998 (Table IV). The more traditional areas of employment for women, such as Medical/Dental and Support MOCs, continue to have the highest female representation rates, while the operational MOC groups have had the lowest rates. On a positive note, the Naval Operational/Technical MOC group experienced the largest growth in female officer representation rates, increasing from 2% in 1989 to 9% in 1998. On the other hand, the Combat Arms MOC group continues to have the lowest female officer representation rate. (Annexes B through G contain the female representation rates for each of the individual officer MOCs, according to the MOC groups.)

Table IV: Female Representation Rates in the Regular Force Officer MOC Groups

	1989	1998
COMBAT ARMS	0.3%	2.9%
NAVAL OP/TECH	1.6%	9.0%
AIR OP/TECH	4.4%	6.2%
ENG/COMM	6.2%	8.9%
MEDICAL/DENTAL	41.8%	41.8%
SUPPORT	17.0%	22.4%
TOTAL	9.3%	11.8%

NCM Component

32. The total numbers of both male and female NCMs in 1998 were at levels lower than those in 1989 (Table V). Whereas the number of male NCMs dropped since 1989, the number of female NCMs increased until 1991 and then began to decrease. The initial growth in the number of female NCMs combined with the continual decrease in the number of male NCMs caused the total female NCM representation rate to increase to a high of 11.2% in 1994, from 10.0% in 1989. However, with the downsizing of the Regular Force and the emphasis on the operational component of the CF, the female NCM representation rate dropped to 10.5% by 1998.

Table V: Changes in the Regular Force NCM Strength of the CF

	1989	1998	% CHANGE
# OF WOMEN	6,923	5,101	-26.3%
# OF MEN	62,309	43,432	-30.3%
TOTAL	69,232	48,533	-29.9%
FEMALE REPRESENTATION	10.0%	10.5%	

33. Comparable to the officer component, female NCM representation rates generally decrease with rank (Table VI). However, almost all of the female representation rates by rank share a similar trend, with higher rates in 1998 than in 1989. The exceptions to this trend are the Private and Corporal ranks. The decreases seen in the female representation rates at these ranks can be attributed to the limited recruiting in the early to mid-1990's which focussed mainly on the combat arms MOCs and attracted relatively few women. It should be noted that the increases in the female representation rates at the other NCM ranks can be attributed to one of two reasons: either a greater proportional decrease in the number of men (as in the case of the Master Corporal and Sergeant ranks) or a greater proportional increase in the number of women (as in the case of the ranks of Warrant Officer and above). (For the specific numbers of women and men at each NCM rank, please refer to the section on career progression.)

Table VI Female Representation Rates in the Regular Force NCM Ranks

	1989	1998
CHIEF WARRANT OFFICER	0.2%	1.6%
MASTER WARRANT OFFICER	0.9%	3.7%
WARRANT OFFICER	2.5%	6.9%
SERGEANT	7.5%	10.1%
MASTER CORPORAL	9.4%	10.4%
CORPORAL	14.2%	13.1%
PRIVATE	12.2%	8.2%
TOTAL	10.0%	10.5%

34. Also similar to the officer component, female NCM representation rates vary substantially by MOC group, but all groups showed an increase in their female representation rates between 1989 and 1998 (Table VII). The more traditional areas of employment for women, such as Medical/Dental and Support MOCs, continue to have the highest female NCM representation rates, while the operational MOC groups generally have had the lowest rates. Of the three operational NCM MOC groups, the Naval Operational/Technical MOC group experienced the largest growth in female representation rates, increasing from over 2% in 1989 to almost 5% in 1998. The Combat Arms MOC group continues to have the lowest female representation rate for NCMs, at less than 1%. (Annexes B through G contain the female representation rates for each of the individual NCM MOCs, according to the MOC groups.)

Table VII: Female Representation Rates in the Regular Force NCM MOC Groups

	1989	1998
COMBAT ARMS	0.4%	0.9%
NAVAL OP/TECH	2.5%	4.8%
AIR OP/TECH	8.5%	8.7%
ENG/COMM	6.7%	7.2%
MEDICAL/DENTAL	24.2%	31.1%
SUPPORT	21.2%	23.6%
TOTAL	10.0%	10.5%

Summary

35. The downsizing efforts of the Regular Force have limited significant progress in female representation rates, despite restrictions on the employment of women in the CF being removed almost immediately after the 1989 Canadian Human Rights Tribunal decision. The numbers of both women and men were well below 1989 levels by 1998. Female representation rates were at 11.8% for officers and 10.5% for NCMs as of 1 January 1998, only marginally higher than the rates observed in 1989 (9.3% for officers and 10.0% for NCMs). Not surprisingly, female representation rates tend to be higher in the lower ranks and in the traditional areas of employment for women, such as Medical/Dental and Support MOCs.

IV - RECRUITMENT

Socio-Demographic Trends

36. Socio-economic trends in the Canadian population have been studied over the years in an effort to monitor their impact on CF recruitment (Tierney et al, 1980; Tivendell et al, 1985; Hamel, 1987; Strom, 1993). The CF is an all-volunteer force, so it must compete with educational institutions and other employers in the labour market to maintain effective levels of personnel. In the 25 years following World War II, the CF was able to meet its recruitment demands reasonably well. During the 1970's, however, there was some difficulty in meeting recruiting goals despite the CF shrinking in size by more than 25% and the pool of potential applicants (men of 17 to 25 years of age) increasing by almost 50% (Tierney et al, 1980). The shortage was mainly due to the expansion of the educational system, where there was greatly increased student retention in the secondary school system and higher participation rates at the post-secondary level. While the labour force was growing more educated, urbanized and older (due to a dropping fertility rate), CF applicants and enrollees did not reflect these trends. The focus of the Forces' recruiting efforts on the younger, less educated person with a history of marginal involvement in the labour force was costly to the CF in terms of high rates of attrition (Tierney et al, 1980). It was expected that the CF's personnel shortfalls would continue into the 1980s and 1990s, but the economic recession during the period brought about reduced attrition and increased interest in CF employment.

37. During the recruiting shortfalls in the 1970's, the increased employment of women was discussed. It was hypothesized that the enrolment of women in larger numbers and into more trades and classifications would be one way of dealing with any future shortfall of male recruits, but it was also acknowledged that such an approach would require both organizational and attitudinal changes (Tivendell et al, 1985). The potential of women to serve in the CF has continued to increase since that time, as women have provided a growing applicant pool into the 1990's. The ratio of women to men in the Canadian population continued to increase and the labour force participation rate of women also continued to grow until the mid-1990's when both levelled off (Strom, 1993).

Attitudes/Perceptions of the CF

38. Studies into factors affecting military service indicate that at least five content areas have been linked to the enrolment decision: attitudes toward the military; propensity/intention to serve; awareness of career opportunities; roles/images; and perceived barriers to military service (Reeves et al, 1991). In 1997, a survey was conducted of visible minorities, Aboriginal people and women to determine the interest level of these groups to join the CF (Environics, 1997). The survey sample focussed on the potential applicant pool, excluding those ineligible for recruitment into the CF, i.e. those already enrolled in the CF, those with less than a Grade 10 education, those not a Canadian citizen or landed immigrant and those not included in the workforce (either

retired or at home and not looking for work either part-time or full-time). The specific objectives of the survey were to determine:

a. the perceptions and attitudes of the specific groups towards the CF;

b. the level of knowledge of the CF within each specific group;

c. the level of interest and propensity to join the CF;

d. the proximity of these groups to CF sites; and

e. the relationship between the perceptions, attitudes and knowledge, and proximity to CF sites, and their interest and propensity to join the CF.

39. The Environics study found that the views of those in the visible minority and aboriginal groups closely mirrored the views of the Canadian population as a whole, but the largest differences in issues addressed in the survey could be traced to gender. It was concluded that if there are any challenges to be addressed by the CF in relation to attitudes and perceptions of the CF, they deal with the perception of women and women's roles in the Canadian military.

40. The results of the survey pertaining to attitudes toward the CF showed that three-quarters of men and women indicate that they hold a positive impression of the CF. Both men and women are also very proud of the role that the CF plays in the world and at home in Canada (over 90% in the age group of 17 to 20 years). Similar proportions of men and women (70% and 66% respectively) agree that all people are made to feel welcome in the CF, although both women and men, and more so for women, are less likely to think that women have the same opportunities for advancement as do men (57% versus 52%). Women are also more likely to agree that women have to be more concerned than men about being harassed (71% versus 63%). On the broad question of support or opposition to war, women are much more likely than men to agree that they are opposed to war under any circumstances (71% versus 58%).

41. Familiarity with the CF also differed greatly by gender in the Environics study. Only 27% of women, compared to 51% of men, indicate that they are at least somewhat familiar with the Canadian military. Women are also more likely than men to report that they do not know whether there is a military unit within the commuting distance of their home. Women are somewhat less likely than men to use media reports for news about the CF (55% versus 62%) but slightly more likely to cite family and friends associated with the CF (39% versus 35%).

42. Men are twice as likely as women to be interested in joining the CF (30% versus 16%), according to the survey. With both genders, interest is highest among those of 17 to 20 years of age and drops off fairly steadily with age. Women are more likely to cite family commitments as reasons why they are not interested in joining the CF (16% versus 7%). There are no gender-based differences in whether the respondent would prefer to

join the Primary Reserves versus the Regular Force, although women are more likely to be interested in joining the CF as officers (75% versus 65%). The Army holds less appeal for women than men (25% versus 35%); the Navy on the other hand holds more appeal (25% versus 17%). Men are twice as likely as women to be interested in combat arms positions (56% versus 30%).

43. From the results of the Environics study, it was found that the propensity to actually join the CF is low for both women and men. Men are twice as likely as women to have spoken to a recruiter (20% versus 10%). Among those who have spoken to a recruiter, women are much more likely than men to have spoken to one at school (47% versus 29%), whereas men are more likely to have spoken to one at a recruitment centre (48% versus 15%). Women are slightly less likely than men to report they will visit a recruiting centre in the next 12 months (5% versus 9%).

The Potential Applicant Pool

44. There are a variety of measures to determine the external availability of potential recruits for the CF, i.e. the recruitable population. The most broad-brush approach would be to use the demographic profile of the Canadian population, which according to the 1991 Census data, is composed of 50.6% women.

45. Another approach would be to limit the recruitable population to that of the Canadian workforce since the first approach includes those who are retired, those not looking for work, and those too young to enter the workforce. For the CF, the workforce could be further limited to those who are actually eligible for service in the military. This subset is defined as those meeting specific age (17-52 years of age inclusively), citizenship (Canadian citizen or landed immigrant), and education (at least Grade 10) criteria (Smith, 1995). The demographic profile of this *eligible* recruitable population is composed of 47.6% women.

46. The last step in refining the external availability of potential recruits for the CF would be to determine what proportion of the eligible workforce is actually interested in joining the CF and has the propensity to enroll. This step is considered to be particularly important because service in the military is not considered to be a universal choice of people looking for employment. It is also important that both the interest level and the likelihood to visit a recruiting centre are determined since not everyone who expresses an interest in the CF has the intention of actually visiting a recruiting centre. This information was captured by the Environics study described above, and it was found that women have a far lower interest and propensity to join the CF than do men. When this factor is applied, the demographic profile of the eligible, recruitable population *that is interested and likely to join the CF* is composed of 28.3% women.

CF Applicant Profile

47. The CF applicant profile has been studied extensively through the use of surveys administered at CF recruiting centres (Chevrier, 1987; Chevrier et al, 1989; Chevrier,

1990a; Chevrier, 1990b; Chevrier, 1990c; West et al, 1991; Boswell et al, 1991; Parker, 1992; Ewins, 1998). The CF's inability to meet its recruiting quotas in the 1970's and early 1980's was due in part to a failure to attract an adequate supply of quality people from the potential applicant pool. Those that were attracted to the CF tended to have a low level of education, had histories of job turnover, did not consider the CF to be their first occupational choice, and tended not to be committed to serving in the CF beyond a five-year period (Chevrier, 1987). Although subsequent changes in the size of the CF and in economic conditions have helped to relieve the pressure on the recruitment system to attract high quality applicants, the importance of monitoring the applicant population so that trends that could have an impact on future recruiting can be identified early has not diminished. The latest gender analysis of the CF applicant profile was conducted on surveys completed between April 1995 and October 1996 (Ewins, 1998).

48. The most recent version of the survey used to study the CF applicant profile is the Canadian Forces Applicant Survey (CFAS). Like its predecessor, the Canadian Forces Applicant Profile Questionnaire (CFAPQ), the CFAS is used to gather demographic and personal information on applicants, as well as identify the sources of information the applicant has been exposed to and those that are the most influential in making the decision to enroll in the CF. The CFAS is administered to all potential candidates who write a general aptitude screening test (originally the General Classification (GC) Test but now the Canadian Forces Aptitude Test (CFAT)). This currently occurs after the initial contact stage, thereby excluding those who are screened out through initial contact information and those who choose not to pursue employment with the CF after initial information gathering, but before a conditional offer is made. Those who may be screened out later based on test scores, medical, fitness tests, etc. are included.

49. Analysis revealed that the female representation rate of CF applicants was 20.8% in 1989 (Chevrier et al, 1989). This increased to 22.7% by 1994 (Parker et al, 1994), and has remained relatively constant since then. As of 1996, the female representation rate of CF applicants was 22.6% (Ewins, 1998). This level of interest is slightly lower than that established in the Environics study which determined the female representation rate of those interested and likely to join the CF to be 28.3%.

50. The majority of CF applicants tend to apply for the Primary Reserves (Ewins, 1998). In 1996, women were more likely than men to apply for the Primary Reserves (68.3% versus 60.4%). Conversely, men showed a greater interest in service with the Regular Force (33.9% versus 25.1%). The majority of CF applicants also tend to apply for the NCM component. In 1996, men were more likely than women to apply as NCMs (71.6% versus 66.3%), and women were more likely to apply as officers (26.3% versus 22.9%). Comparable data were not available from the 1989 analysis (Chevrier et al, 1989).

51. Both male and female applicants have been concentrated in the 16 to 20 year old age group. The 1996 age profile of CF applicants showed that female applicants now tend to be slightly younger than their male counterparts, with 63.0% of female applicants in the 16 to 20 years of age group as compared to 60.4% of male applicants (Ewins,

1998). There has apparently been a shift in the age profile of female applicants since female applicants tended to be slightly older than their male counterparts in 1989. This was attributed to a greater proportion of women between the ages of 15 and 19 still attending school in 1989 as compared to men in the same age group, which would delay their entry into the labour market (Chevrier et al, 1989). The younger age profile of female applicants now could be attributed to women being more likely to apply for the Primary Reserves which attracts a younger age group.

52. In a comparison of the 1989 and 1996 CF applicant profiles (Ewins, 1998 and Chevrier et al, 1989), both male and female applicants appear to be better educated now, with female applicants continuing to be better educated than male applicants. A higher percentage of female applicants than male applicants (58.9% versus 50.3%) were attending school full-time in 1996. Roughly 90% of applicants in 1996 (91.5% for women and 87.9% for men) had completed at least Grade 11 compared with just 52.8% of applicants in 1989. In 1996, a slightly higher percentage of applicants (again higher for women than men at 35.9% and 30.7% respectively) had completed at least one year of post-secondary education other than university. Only 29.9% of applicants reported having attended a post-secondary, non-university institution in 1989. Applicants having attended at least one year of university exhibited similar trends, accounting for 19.1% of female applicants and 14.7% of male applicants in 1996 but only 10% of applicants in 1989.

53. In the Ewins study, it was found that over three-quarters of both male and female applicants were Caucasian. Of the male applicants, 83.6% were Caucasian, 4.7% were Aboriginal and 11.7% were members of visible minority groups. Similarly, 82.1% of female applicants were Caucasian, 7.4% were Aboriginal and 10.5% were visible minorities. It is interesting to note the slightly higher proportion of female Aboriginal applicants compared to male Aboriginal applicants, but the study did not speculate as to the reason why. The ethnic make-up of the 1989 applicant profile revealed that 82.4% had British or French ancestry and only 1.4% were Aboriginal (Chevrier et al, 1989).

54. The language and nationality profiles have also shown little difference between male and female applicants (Ewins, 1998). In 1996, almost three-quarters of both male and female applicants listed English as their first official language (70.5% and 68.9% respectively). Comparable data from 1989 were not available because at that time the survey asked if the respondent was unilingual English, unilingual French or bilingual. English, however, was the predominant language of applicants. In 1996, Canadian-born applicants accounted for over 80% of male and female applicants (86.9% and 87.4% respectively).

55. In the urban/rural distribution analyses of the CF applicant profile, rural areas have been defined as any village, hamlet or farming community with less than 1,000 people. All other areas are considered to be urban (Chevrier et al, 1989). Since 1989, a very small proportion of applicants has come from rural areas (9.8% in 1989 and less than 8% in 1996). There is no difference between male and female applicants - 7.7% of

male applicants and 7.8% of female applicants came from rural areas in 1996 (Ewins, 1998).

56. The employment patterns do differ between male and female applicants. While a larger proportion of male applicants were working full-time in 1996 (17.9% of men versus 12.3% of women), women were more likely to be working part-time (33.8% versus 27.6%). This could be due to the larger proportion of female applicants attending school full-time (Ewins, 1998). Roughly half of the male and female applicants were unemployed in 1996.

57. Previous military experience is modest for male and female applicants, but male applicants have had slightly more exposure. Thirty percent of male applicants as compared to 23.9% of female applicants had had previous cadet experience in 1996 (Ewins, 1998). Cadet participation among CF applicants has not changed much over the years as 29.6% of applicants reported previous cadet experience in 1989 (Chevrier, 1989). Experience with the Primary Reserves has been substantially lower, at 6.5% for male applicants and 4.1% for female applicants in 1996. This has dropped considerably since 1989 when applicants with previous Primary Reserve experience accounted for 15.2% of the applicant pool. Former Regular Force members account for a negligible amount of applicants - 3.4% of male applicants and 1.8% of female applicants in 1996 and only 1.9% of applicants in 1989.

58. A friend or relative with CF experience has been the most prevalent initial source of information for both male and female applicants over time. In 1996, 36.6% of male applicants and 40.0% of female applicants identified friends or relatives as their initial source of information (Ewins, 1998), compared with 27.1% of applicants in 1989 (Chevrier, 1990b). Commercial advertising, i.e. print and electronic advertising, appears to have lost some influence over the last few years. Whereas 19.4% of applicants in 1989 identified this medium as their initial source of information, only 13.7% of male applicants and 13.8% of female applicants in 1996 cited the same source.

59. A friend or relative with CF experience was also the most useful source of information for both male and female applicants in 1996 (34.5% versus 40.7%) (Ewins, 1998). This is in sharp contrast with the results from the 1989 analysis (Chevrier, 1990b), which identified CF recruiters as the most useful source of information for 49.6% of applicants. Only 19.7% of male applicants and 17.1% of female applicants cited CF recruiters as their most useful source of information in 1996. Not surprisingly, a friend or relative with CF experience was cited as the most influential source of information in their decision to enroll by male and female applicants in 1996 (35.2% and 37.9% respectively) (Ewins, 1998). CF recruiters were the source of greatest influence in 1989 (27.2%) (Chevrier, 1990b).

60. Career opportunities was the most predominant reason given by both men and women for why they wanted to join the CF in 1996 (Ewins, 1998). Challenging work, the opportunity to learn a trade or profession, and a job with responsibility were also among the top five reasons given by male and female applicants. The fifth ranked reason

for joining the CF differed between men and women, with men wanting to serve their country and women wanting to become independent. The top five reasons for joining the CF based on the male applicant profile have not changed since 1989 (Chevrier, 1990a).

Selection Testing

61. The selection phase for CF applicants includes testing, interviewing, career counselling and the final decision-making of the selection boards. General ability testing is conducted at the time of initial application, using the new CFAT which tests for learning ability. Prior to November 1997, officer and NCM applicants wrote the GC tests to determine eligibility for continued processing, and then NCM applicants wrote an additional screening test, the Canadian Forces Classification Battery (CFCB), to classify candidates according to their suitability for certain occupations. However, these tests were found to contain certain gender biases.

62. Analyses by CFPARU in the late 1980's reported that the GC2 and GC3 tests appeared equally reliable for both men and women (Halliwell, 1988; Campbell, 1989). However, subsequent analyses suggested some problems with the tests' validation and use in general (Rannie et al, 1991). As part of this additional analysis, differences in male and female scores appeared, with speed in the last half of the test having a differential effect on the performance of men and women (Miller, 1991). In 1991, a shorter GC2-R test was created, but this test also contained possible gender bias against anglophone female applicants who received lower scores (Stouffer, 1992). As well in 1991, a psychometric analysis was done of GC3 and CFCB scores of male and female applicants (Spinner, 1991). In particular, women did not do as well on the three CFCB technical tests (Automotive Information, Science Knowledge and Pattern Information), with their scoring patterns so unreliable that the author judged it likely that women were responding almost 'semi-randomly'.

63. In light of the problems with the GC and CFCB tests, the CFAT was developed to test learning ability rather than knowledge. A recent psychometric analysis of the CFAT, which compared the responses of men and women who obtained similar results on the test overall, revealed that there is apparently no gender bias in this new test (Zumbo et al, 1998).

64. Another measure for selection is the Military Potential (MP) rating, which is based on the combination of all the information collected on the applicant and ranges from one to nine, with MP9 most suitable for military service. An examination of MP ratings between 1985 and 1990 did not show a significant difference in MP ratings for men versus women (Grandmaison et al, 1994). However, the MP rating did not predict success very well for either men or women on either basic or Qualification Level 3 (QL3) training.

65. In the mid-1990's, CFPARU also examined the defensibility of officer selection boards used to screen applicants for specific officer entry plans, i.e. the Direct Entry Officer (DEO), the Officer Candidate Training Plan (OCTP), and the University Training

Plan for Non-Commissioned Members (UTPNCM) boards (Stouffer et al, 1994; Adams-Roy, 1996). Four tests were used to ensure validity, fairness, absence of adverse impact and job-relevance of these boards. It was found that no significant difference was found in board scores assigned to male and female DEO/OCTP applicants, with women generally receiving higher, but not significantly higher, scores. However, women did not receive their proportionate share of offers of employment. The same result was found in the analysis of the UTPNCM board, with women having equal or better qualifications but not receiving commissioning offers at the same rate as men. An analysis by individual MOC was not conducted, which could have possibly explained the differences in the results by gender, i.e. women may have been rated suitable for the overall program but not for the specific MOCs open for commissioning. (Note: The OCTP selection program has been recently replaced by the Continuing Education Officer Training Plan (CEOTP).)

Disposition Analysis

66. An analysis was conducted in 1997 to compare application, processing and enrolment statistics for designated group members compared to non-designated group applicants (GCORI, 1997). Of the men and women who applied to the CF between 1996 and 1997, 47.6% of male applicants were accepted compared with 42.4% of female applicants. Female applicants were more likely than male applicants to be rejected (36.4% versus 33.3%) or to voluntarily withdraw their application (21.2% versus 19.1%).

67. In a closer examination of the rejection reasons, the largest discrepancies between male and female applicants appeared in GC scores (9.1% of men rejected versus 10.5% of women) and perceived unsuitability for the MOC requested (0.9% versus 2.7%). Female applicants were more likely to have GC scores which fell below the median (52.6% versus 47.2%). A median split was used in the analysis because examination of the data did not reveal an obvious score on the GC test that would suggest a pass-fail criterion. One other measurement of interest was the MP rating, which was, on average, actually slightly higher for female applicants than it was for male applicants (5.0 versus 4.9).

68. The higher acceptance rate of male applicants might suggest the possibility of selection barriers limiting female participation (West et al, 1991). If this is the case, a significant increase in the number of female applicants may not necessarily result in the increased representation of women in the CF. However, there are other hypotheses as to why there are gender differences in the disposition rates of applicants. Given the tendency of women to be employed in traditional employment areas, there may be a reluctance by female applicants to accept certain classifications, particularly the combat arms trades. They may even be discouraged from accepting certain MOCs. If women are withdrawing from the recruiting process by not accepting non-traditional occupations, this could account in part for the difference in acceptance rates. The higher withdrawal rates for female applicants may be evidence of this hypothesis. In any event, it was recommended in the West report that active educational programs should be prepared to promote selection equity, and recruiters should be made aware of the importance of

gender integration. Also, efforts to change the attitudes necessary to foster the acceptance of servicewomen into the CF must continue.

Enrolment Trends

69. The downsizing efforts of the Regular Force during the early to mid-1990's resulted in a dramatic drop in the number of enrolments for both women and men, as shown in Figure 2 and summarized in Table VIII. The types of MOCs open for recruitment during this period were also limited mostly to combat arms and other operational MOCs. This resulted in a more substantial drop in the number of female enrolments, since these are non-traditional occupations for women. Consequently, the female share of enrolment[3] dropped from 16.6% in 1989 to a low of 6.8% in 1994. Since that time, the number of enrolments has begun to slowly increase; there have been more MOCs open for recruitment, and more women are enrolling in the operational MOCs. Consequently, the female share of enrolment grew to 14.2% in 1997, a substantial increase from even just the year before, when the female share of enrolment was at 10.1%. Note, however, that the female share of enrolment remains below the female share of applicants (roughly 22%), indicating that women are being screened out or have withdrawn their application at a greater rate than male applicants.

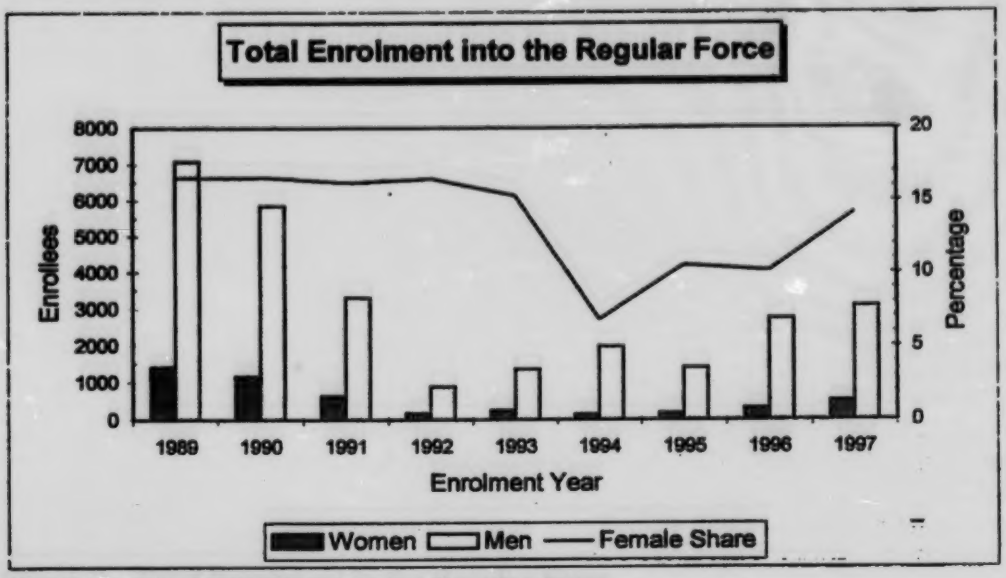

Figure 2 - Total Enrolment in the Regular Force

[3] The female share of enrolment can be defined as the number of female enrollees in a given year divided by the total number of enrollees in that year.

Table VIII: Changes in Total Regular Force Enrolment

	1989	1997	% CHANGE
# OF WOMEN	1,408	508	-63.9%
# OF MEN	7,078	3,076	-56.5%
TOTAL	8,486	3,584	-57.8%
FEMALE SHARE	16.6%	14.2%	

70. The enrolment patterns for officers and NCMs have differed somewhat over the period since 1989. Although both experienced substantial decreases in overall numbers, the female share of enrolment was not adversely affected for officers. The female share of enrolment for officers maintained a general upward trend, from 17.1% in 1989 to 25.0% in 1997. This is an encouraging trend because the female representation rate can not increase unless the female share of enrolment is higher than the female representation rate and female attrition rates are not substantially higher than those for men.

71. In contrast to the trends observed for officers, the female share of enrolment for NCMs experienced a decline from 16.5% in 1989 to a low of 3.2% in 1994. Less than 100 women were enrolled as NCMs in each year between 1992 and 1995, which resulted in the plummeting female share of enrolment. The female share of enrolment then steadily increased to 12.0% in 1997, but the earlier decline has had a serious impact on the female representation rate for NCMs. The female representation rate peaked in 1994 at 11.2% and then decreased to 10.5% in 1997. With the female share of enrolment for NCMs only surpassing the female representation rate again in the past year, this trend will be slow to reverse itself.

72. Similar patterns were observed in MOC groups for officers and NCMs, as those seen for officers and NCMs as a whole (summarized in Tables IX and X). It should be noted that the support type of MOC groups for both officers and NCMs experienced larger decreases in enrolment numbers than their operational counterparts. This is not surprising as the CF has focussed on maintaining its operational capabilities despite downsizing. It can also be noted that the female share of enrolment has been typically higher in the support MOCs than in the operational ones, but again this is not surprising since these are the traditional areas of employment for women. (Annexes B to G contain the female shares of enrolment for each of the individual MOCs, according to the MOC groups.)

Table IX: Summary of Regular Force Officer Enrolment

OFFICER MOC GROUP		1989	1997	% CHANGE
COMBAT ARMS	Female	5	17	+240.0%
	Male	223	92	- 58.7%
	Female Share	2.2%	15.6%	
NAVAL OP/TECH	Female	23	37	+60.9%
	Male	197	65	-67.0%
	Female Share	10.5%	36.3%	
AIR OP/TECH	Female	55	21	-61.8%
	Male	454	158	-65.2%
	Female Share	10.8%	11.7%	
ENG/COMM	Female	15	3	-80.0%
	Male	147	12	-91.8%
	Female Share	9.3%	20.0%	
MEDICAL/DENTAL	Female	65	30	-53.8%
	Male	74	9	-87.8%
	Female Share	46.8%	76.9%	
SUPPORT	Female	68	17	-75.0%
	Male	100	13	-87.0%
	Female Share	40.5%	56.7%	
TOTAL	Female	279	150	-46.2%
	Male	1350	450	-66.7%
	Female Share	17.1%	25.0%	

Recruitment Systems Review

73. The CF Employment Equity Project contracted Price Waterhouse Management Consulting to oversee a review of the CF recruitment system and its support for the principles of employment equity in 1994 (Price Waterhouse, 1995). Eight CF members were part of a review team, which conducted a 'self-audit' of the recruitment system. In the process, several CFPARU and contractor reports were examined, and the review team observed various recruiting procedures, including applicant interviews. The study divided CF recruiting activity into four areas: attraction, screening, selection and the nomination and professional development of recruiting system staff. Thirty-five recommendations were made, following the examination of policy and procedures and individual recruiters' behaviour.

Table X: Summary of Regular Force NCM Enrolment

NCM MOC GROUP		1989	1997	% CHANGE
COMBAT ARMS	Female	54	55	+ 1.9%
	Male	2399	1541	-35.8%
	Female Share	2.2%	3.5%	
NAVAL OP/TECH	Female	89	49	-44.9%
	Male	942	308	-67.3%
	Female Share	8.6%	13.7%	
AIR OP/TECH	Female	78	33	-57.7%
	Male	330	206	-37.6%
	Female Share	19.1%	13.8%	
ENG/COMM	Female	267	40	-85.0%
	Male	1126	322	-71.4%
	Female Share	19.2%	11.1%	
MEDICAL/DENTAL	Female	86	40	-53.5%
	Male	82	29	-64.6%
	Female Share	51.2%	58.0%	
SUPPORT	Female	554	141	-74.5%
	Male	849	220	-74.1%
	Female Share	39.5%	39.1%	
TOTAL	Female	1129	358	-68.3%
	Male	5728	2626	-54.2%
	Female Share	16.5%	12.0%	

74. In reviewing the applicant survey analyses conducted by CFPARU, it was highlighted by the Price Waterhouse study that one of the most influential sources of information about the CF is a serving member. However, the importance of the potential applicants' personal contact with serving members who are in the CF poses a challenge in increasing the diversity of the applicant pool. Serving members are most likely to be in contact with family, friends, or other individuals who have the same or similar ethnic backgrounds. In the absence of more proactive personal communication methods, the word-of-mouth communications of the existing CF membership will tend to perpetuate the current demographic patterns. As well, research on the general youth population indicates that parental influence is the strongest influence on career choices and that parents continue to steer young women toward different career options than they suggest for young men. Further research in this area is suggested by the study.

75. The Price Waterhouse study found that CF recruitment communication plans have taken into account the increasing participation of women in the potential applicant pool. By policy, women will be portrayed as full and effective members in visual and audio material; 50% of principals in all advertising will be women, and as much as possible, women will be represented at the 50% level; visuals of women in traditional roles will be avoided and increased use of more dynamic and non-traditional occupations will be

made; and unique communications vehicles such as young women's magazines will be investigated on a regular basis to assess their potential value.

76. The review team observed that recruiters generally put a great deal of effort into responding to the needs of different audiences. However, there are a very limited number of female role models with whom female candidates can identify. In the absence of such role models, it is speculated that prospective female applicants may simply withdraw from further investigation of CF opportunities.

77. Given resource constraints, many recruiting centres have instituted procedures that lead to very limited time being available to explain the opportunities in the CF to prospective applicants (Price Waterhouse, 1995). Female candidates, however, often need more time to consider their options. Moreover, there is concern that, despite good intentions, some CF recruitment team members inadvertently 'turn off' women by presenting an overly challenging view of the rigours of CF occupations, particularly the combat arms trades. It was agreed by the review team that the best balance in describing CF occupations to potential applicants is to talk about the challenges, stressing that their peers will be encouraging and that they will be able to achieve more than they ever expected.

78. The Price Waterhouse study concluded that selection testing has generally been well designed. Of some concern, though, is that although interviewing and career counseling show consistency, with interviews structured to confirm the candidate's knowledge, abilities, and aptitudes, and to disseminate the necessary information, there seems to be some differential counseling, with women receiving stronger 'warnings' of the rigours of a CF career. While a realistic job preview is needed, it was noted that some female applicants may interpret such 'realism' as counseling-out. Similarly, there is some concern that the 'motivation' of female candidates may be questioned much more extensively than is the case for their male counterparts, particularly when being considered for operational occupations, leaving the candidate feeling on the defensive rather than counseled appropriately. Women are also not given the same counseling advice on how to improve their overall competitiveness as a CF applicant. The review team was concerned that the more limited counseling for female candidates is tantamount to telling them that there is no way they could make it through the CF recruitment process.

79. Other sources have also noted that there appears to be varying reliability of information and selection processes at recruitment centres (MABWCF, 1991; Chevrier, 1990c). As reported to the MABWCF, inconsistencies range from false reassurances about the ability of individuals to leave or change their occupations to a failure to discuss with any frankness the physical and social demands of life in the infantry. The need for clear, accurate and frank information about occupations, the recruits' obligations, the physical expectations of various jobs and the kinds of self-preparation that could benefit the recruit was repeatedly stated.

80. A CFPARU analysis of the knowledge of the demands and benefits of CF employment (Chevrier, 1990c) seems to confirm the issues raised to the Minister's Advisory Board. In that study, there was a common complaint among trainees that recruiters had failed to apprise them of the fact that they would be unable to transfer occupations for at least three years from the date of enrolment. Also, many applicants did not know that they could be separated from their families at some point in their career or be posted to a ship or field unit. The failure of the applicant to assimilate this type of important career information can cause a great deal of dissatisfaction which, in turn, could result in the premature departure of trained, or partially trained, personnel.

81. The last issue raised in the Price Waterhouse study was the fact that the CF recruiting team itself lacks diversity. Recruiting personnel are selected from a pool of candidates, primarily from operational MOCs. The principle behind this selection approach is that people promoting CF careers should have hands-on experience in operational roles so that they can best discuss such careers with prospective applicants. As a result, there are few female recruiting staff, and most of the women at CF recruiting centres are clerks. In addition, although a wide range of competencies is considered in choosing people for the recruiting system, the assessment of potential nominees did not check explicitly for sensitivity on gender and ethno-cultural issues at the time of the study.

Recent Recruitment Activity

82. It has been felt that the success of the CF's gender integration efforts largely depend upon recruiting an appreciable number of women to create critical mass in the non-traditional MOCs, especially combat arms. Accordingly, in December 1996, the Acting Commander of the Army set a 25% recruiting target for female NCMs on future QL3 Combat Arms serials (DLP, 1996).

83. Since normal recruiting activities would not have been sufficient to raise the general public's level of awareness and generate a sufficient number of female walk-ins to meet the 25% recruiting goal, a realistic and conscious marketing campaign targeting women was required (Howe, 1998a). To attract women and inform the Canadian public at large about the combat arms opportunities available to women, approximately $1.5 million was committed to market research, developing and producing an advertising and public affairs program entitled "Women in the Army, A Force for Change", developing an Internet web site, hosting five special combat arms attraction events across the country entitled "OP: Your Army" and upgrading the recruiting centre image. The advertising and public awareness campaign ran in February and March of 1998, and successfully generated positive awareness and national media coverage.

84. The success of this initiative has yet to be determined (Howe, 1998b). Between 1989 and 1997, a total of 247 women were recruited into the NCM combat arms MOCs. Since the completion of the marketing campaign, 368 women have gone to a recruiting centre and made an application to at least one combat arms MOC and there have been an additional 48 component transfer applications from women already in the Primary

Reserves. As of November 1998, 97 women had been enrolled in the combat arms NCM MOCs, almost twice the number of female combat arms enrollees of any other year. To date, nine of these women have graduated QL3 training and have been posted to battalions; 32 are currently undergoing training; 20 have ceased training as a result of medical injury; and 36 have either left or will leave the combat arms through release or occupation transfer.

85. Some of the female enrollees who left the combat arms were interviewed about their reasons for leaving (Howe, 1998b). Of those who left during basic recruit training (nine interviews), the women generally reported that a career in the CF was not for them at this time, but they were positive about the CF and would recommend that others should pursue career opportunities in the combat arms. On the other hand, the female enrollees who released during occupational qualification training cited distinct attitudinal barriers as their reason for leaving (five interviews). Despite equipment that did not fit and difficulties encountered in trying to meet the physical demands of training, these women reported that they would have continued training but saw no solution to the hostile attitudinal climate and gave up.

86. The Navy has also recently set ambitious recruiting goals for women. Based on its long-term expectations of what its demographic composition may be in 2010, the Navy set its recruiting goal to be 40% women (DNPR, 1997). The Navy aims to have a female representation rate of 25% by 2010, so it must have an annual recruiting goal of roughly 40% women to account for attrition. The Air Force's recruiting goal for women, based on the overall interest and propensity levels of women to join the CF determined in the Environics study, is currently set at 29% (D Air PM&S, 1998a).

Impact of Increased Recruiting Goals

87. The impact of the recently increased recruiting goals set for women in the CF has been examined, using a LOTUS spreadsheet designed to calculate future female representation levels. This tool is based on a steady-state population, i.e. the total number in the population will not change over time. Therefore, the total number enrolled equals the total number released from the population. After calculating the number of men and women released from a specific MOC group in the first year, based on historical attrition rates, the number of men and women to be enrolled is calculated using the recruiting goal for women. The resulting number of men and women in the MOC group is then calculated and the female representation rate is produced from these numbers. This process is repeated for as many years as desired.

88. Using this model, the impact of the increased recruiting goals can be readily seen. The Army's recruiting goal of 25% women in the NCM combat arms trades is a substantial increase from its historical female share of enrolment, which has typically been less than 3%. If historical attrition rates for the combat arms are used, where the average attrition rate for women has been four times that for men, the female representation rate would increase quickly over the next seven years from its current level of less than 1% to roughly 7% and then level off. If female attrition was lowered to a

level similar to that for men, the female representation rate would not level off over the next 20 years, but instead would increase steadily to roughly 20%. Thus, it can be seen that although increasing the female share of enrolment is important, significant progress can not be made unless the high female attrition rates are addressed.

89. Similar results were found for the Navy and the Air Force. Using the Navy's goals of recruiting 40% women and its historical attrition rates which have been twice that for women as they have been for men, the female representation rate in the Navy would increase from its current level of roughly 5% to over 21% by 2010. If female attrition was reduced to the same level as men's, the female representation rate would increase to almost 29%. Using the Air Force's recruiting goals of 29% women, the female representation rate in the Air Force would increase from almost 8% to over 16% in 20 years if historical attrition rates were used. If female attrition was again lowered to a rate comparable to that for men, then the female representation rate would increase to almost 23%.

Summary

90. The CF is an all-volunteer force, so it must compete with educational institutions and other employers in the labour market to attract and maintain required levels of personnel. The Canadian public generally has a positive impression of the CF, but only a very small proportion is interested and likely to join the CF. Women tend to be less familiar with the CF and its employment opportunities than are men.

91. Female representation among applicants is slightly lower than that of the eligible, recruitable population which has expressed an interest in joining the CF. Female applicants tend to be better educated and slightly younger, but have less previous military experience and less interest in joining the Regular Force vice the Reserve Force than their male counterparts. CF recruiters appear to have lost some influence in attracting applicants, as a friend or relative with CF experience is now the most influential source of information in the decision to enroll, particularly for women.

92. A higher percentage of male applicants are accepted into the CF than female applicants. This may suggest the possibility of selection barriers, but it could also be related to a possible reluctance of female applicants to accept employment in non-traditional MOCs. A higher withdrawal rate by female applicants tends to support this hypothesis. A new aptitude test was introduced in 1997 to help screen applicants because previous screening tests were found to have gender biases. Although women have similar scores as men at officer selection boards, they do not receive offers at the same rate. The type of MOC may again be an influencing factor in these results.

93. Downsizing efforts since the early 1990's have had a significant impact on the enrolment patterns for women as well as men, both on the overall numbers enrolled and the type of occupations open for recruitment. Since gender integration efforts depend in part on the effective recruitment of women into all areas, trends in enrolment should continue to be monitored closely. Increased recruiting goals have been recently

established for women, but it is too early to determine if these goals will be met. If they are, there could be substantial progress made in increasing female representation rates, particularly if the higher attrition rates for women are also addressed.

V - TRAINING

Trained versus Untrained Personnel

94. In a comparison of trained versus untrained CF personnel, the effective strength is used to exclude those who are on retirement leave, medical leave or leave without pay or who are absent without leave. Members are considered trained if they have passed all of the MOC phase training for officers or qualification level three (QL3) training for NCMs. While a higher percentage of female officers are in the training system as compared to male officers (27% versus 13% in 1998), there is little difference in the percentages of male and female NCMs who are in the training system (8% versus 9% in 1998) (Tables XI and XII). The most substantial differences between the results for men and women are in the operational MOC groups. As well, a smaller proportion of officers is trained as compared to NCMs, but this is a reflection of the longer production time required for training officers. In comparing the results over time, there are some differences that can be observed for officers and NCMs. The increase in the percentage trained for officers between 1989 and 1998 can be attributed to fewer people being enrolled over the last few years, who are now in the training system. On the other hand, the decrease in the percentage trained for NCMs can be attributed to the increase in the number enrolled in 1997. It is expected that a similar decrease will occur for officers, but it will take longer to appear because of the difference in time it takes to train officers and NCMs.

Table XI: Proportion of Effective Officer Strength That Has Been Trained

OFFICER MOC GROUP	1989		1998	
	FEMALE	MALE	FEMALE	MALE
COMBAT ARMS	0.0%	81.4%	41.2%	85.2%
NAVAL OP/TECH	0.0%	70.7%	27.3%	83.5%
AIR OP/TECH	45.2%	76.0%	67.2%	85.8%
ENG/COMM	53.0%	79.1%	77.3%	88.0%
MEDICAL/DENTAL	73.3%	73.2%	81.6%	80.1%
SUPPORT	74.4%	89.1%	85.4%	94.3%
TOTAL	66.7%	79.0%	72.8%	86.8%

Table XII: Proportion of Effective NCM Strength That Has Been Trained

NCM MOC GROUP	1989		1998	
	FEMALE	MALE	FEMALE	MALE
COMBAT ARMS	100.0%	98.4%	44.1%	84.3%
NAVAL OP/TECH	99.5%	99.8%	59.1%	86.4%
AIR OP/TECH	100.0%	98.6%	93.4%	94.0%
ENG/COMM	99.8%	98.1%	93.1%	94.3%
MEDICAL/DENTAL	99.8%	98.3%	88.0%	93.8%
SUPPORT	99.5%	96.7%	96.8%	98.0%
TOTAL	99.6%	98.1%	91.6%	91.4%

Profile of the Successful Recruit

95. As part of the CF applicant profile research study, a socio-demographic profile of the successful recruit was developed (Boswell et al, 1991). Six hundred and ninety four enrollees who had completed the CFAPQ around 1989 and for whom recruit school pass/fail information was available were used in this study. Due to the insufficient numbers of officer candidates, only NCMs were used in this analysis. It is noted in the study that, although the pass rate was higher for male enrollees in basic training, there was no significant difference in the pass rates of men and women (77.6% versus 72.0%).

96. Of all of the factors used in the CF applicant profile, only education, previous military experience and the most influential source of information in the decision to enroll had a significant effect on success at basic training. Enrollees with Grade 11 or higher had a significantly higher pass rate than did those with less education (78.5% versus 67.7%). The Boswell study attributed the difference in pass rates between the two levels of education to a possible increase in the willingness of those with at least Grade 11 to apply themselves to the task at hand. That is, if the recruit was not able to commit to a high school education, they would not be as likely to successfully apply themselves to basic training.

97. As well, applicants with previous military exposure had a significantly higher pass rate than applicants who had not been exposed to the military through either previous military service in the cadets, reserves or Regular Force or as a member of a military family (79.8% versus 72.2%). The exposure gained by either experiencing military life first hand, or by having a member of the family in the CF, provides an enrollee with a realistic idea of what to expect when they join, particularly at basic training (Boswell et al, 1991). Those without this benefit were more likely to fail basic training, suggesting that enrollees should be provided with realistic information about what is going to occur at recruit school (e.g. lack of sleep, discipline, physical and mental stress).

98. There was also a significant difference in the pass rate for those recruits influenced by commercial advertising, experienced persons or direct experience in paramilitary organizations, and those influenced by employment centres or school counsellors (78.6% versus 52.2%). One explanation for the significantly higher pass rate for recruits who were influenced by experienced persons or personal experiences is that employment centres and school counsellors may be recommending the military to persons who are performing poorly at school or who are not readily employable in the civilian sector, citing the military as a last resort (Boswell et al, 1991). Consequently, these applicants are less likely to be successful in a disciplined environment. It can also be postulated that recruits who were influenced by employment centres or school counsellors may not have been provided with sufficient information on how mentally and physically demanding recruit training can be.

99. Although analysis of the CF applicant profile revealed that women are less likely than men to have previous military experience, they do tend to be better educated and their most influential source of information in their decision to enroll are people with CF experience. Hence, it could be concluded that the socio-demographic profile of female applicants should not be a detriment to their success in basic training.

Training Experience of Women in the Combat Arms

100. The success rate of women completing basic MOC training in the combat arms has not been encouraging. Shortly after the combat arms were open to women in the late 1980's, a review of three recruit quality indicators was conducted to determine possible reasons for the disproportionate success rates of male and female enrollees in the Infantry MOC (Hansen, 1990). GC test scores, educational attainment and MP ratings were examined for men and women, but no significant differences could be found. Both male and female enrollees appeared to possess equal levels of general learning ability and similar levels of educational attainment. In addition, based on the MP ratings, men and women enrolled in the infantry between April 1987 and August 1989 were assessed as having equal probability of achieving success in training up to and including the end of QL3 training. Clearly, other factors have been at play in the low success rate for women in combat arms training, the most evident being physical strength and endurance.

101. As part of a study analyzing the retention of women in the combat arms in 1997, the training and employment experiences of men and women currently in the combat arms and combat support environments were examined (Davis, 1997). From the results of 49 focus groups in which men and women were asked to comment on problems and successful processes in mixed gender units, based on their own experiences, it was evident that women face considerable challenges within the Regular Force combat arms training and employment environment.

102. The Davis study found that there is the perception that instructors, as a whole, convey a negative attitude toward women, in part because they have seen so many come through who are not successful in training or who do not remain in the combat arms environment for an extended period. Consequently, there is a belief that women are not capable and/or not motivated to be employed in the combat arms. In some cases, the female students sense that they are not wanted and are, therefore, in a position of having to prove themselves.

103. Male junior combat arms officers in training expressed the belief that women can not be effective leaders as they do not have 'command presence' (Davis, 1997). These opinions were based on exposure to women during training or hearsay which has become accepted knowledge within the combat arms and military college environment. These men do not believe that the 'troops' will have the confidence in a woman's ability to lead and, therefore, will not follow her.

104. Not surprisingly, the Davis study found that physical standards are perceived to be a major problem, along with perceptions of inconsistency in enforcement of those

standards and confusion regarding the different standards which are applied within the Army. There is also a consistent tendency to attribute much of the problem to the recruitment of poorly motivated, misinformed and unqualified recruits, and to low standards at recruit school. While there is a belief that the CF is enrolling a poor quality of male and female recruits, there is also a perception that there is no screening of women at all - any who are willing to try combat arms are accepted. Female students in training have also expressed a belief that they have been treated as a number to add to the female quota, rather than an individual with merit. Women in the combat arms agree that only qualified and interested individuals should be recruited for the combat arms. Every time a woman enters training who is clearly unqualified, unfit and/or unmotivated, all women are 'painted with the same brush', and success becomes much more difficult for those who are interested, fit and qualified.

105. Men in the Davis study consistently identified double standards that are applied to men and women in the combat arms environment. Formal standards are rarely the issue, rather the perception of the inconsistent application of those standards has created considerable resentment toward women. Double standards frequently identified in the training environment include: disposition of students who do meet the standard (men are released, women are retained); battle school standards are lowered to allow women to pass (again informally on a case-by-case basis); women are treated differently by instructors (instructors are afraid to discipline women, yell in their faces, etc.); and women are shown favouritism (e.g. staff frequently asking women if they need to go to the washroom). Women acknowledge that they are treated differently, and indicate that it creates problems for them.

106. Harassment is generally considered a woman's issue, including perceptions of lack of accountability on the part of leadership for harassment in units (Davis, 1997). Women express the belief that harassment will continue, regardless of who is aware of it, unless women involved complain, putting themselves at risk of double victimization. Men identified harassment only as an issue in so far as it restricts their ability as leaders to discipline and motivate men and women, but more so women. Women and men indicate that male leaders do not push women to achieve physical standards because they are afraid of being accused of harassment.

107. Similarly, the Davis study found that perceptions of fraternization vary depending on gender, rank, etc. Men, for example, are more likely to express the belief that women receive special attention from senior men, while male leaders have noted that they cannot even talk to a female subordinate at the mess because it will be perceived by her peers and others as fraternization. Women, on the other hand, are disproportionately blamed for fraternization as it is seen as an avenue for advancement through training, etc.

108. Persistent problems remain for women with the issue of ill-fitting kit and equipment and access to facilities. Women perceive that there is considerable resentment toward them because of the money spent on new kit for women (Davis, 1997). Both men and women acknowledge that small stature men experience similar difficulties; however it is viewed overall as an issue specific to women. Access to facilities, such as showers,

and rules and procedures governing access for women also continue to be problems. Women expressed a belief in the Davis study that special access, or male perceptions of special access for women, creates resentment among male peers toward women. Men expressed resentment toward women as a result of special measures that they believe result in preferential treatment for women.

RMC Experience

109. The female representation rate among Royal Military College (RMC) cadets was approximately 25% in 1998, up substantially from just five years previous when only 15% of the student body was comprised of women. In an early analysis of barriers to female engineers at RMC, it was found that female cadets typically have lower first year averages than the male cadets, but they make up for it in subsequent years when their averages are higher than those for male cadets (Dececchi et al, 1994). It should be noted, though, that the differences in grade averages were not found to be significant. Less than 10% of the female engineering cadets interviewed evaluated their RMC experience as negative and said that given the chance they would not attend RMC again. Female cadets said that the most positive aspects of RMC are the friendships, camaraderie and feeling of family; the most negative aspect is the administrative aggravation. Possible problem areas related to female participation at RMC are: factors negatively affecting the female cadets' perceptions of themselves, e.g. negative comments about eating habits and weight and derogatory sexist slang; the significant role played by sports at the college, which places a higher prestige value on traditional male sports programs; and social factors, such as difficulty dating when required to wear a uniform.

110. A more recent study of issues related to the ROTP and RMC was conducted in 1998. Surveys were used to analyze attitudes of civilian students towards the ROTP (PRT, 1998a), attitudes of currently serving officer cadets (PRT, 1998b) and attitudes of those who have left the ROTP (PRT, 1998c).

111. The survey of civilian students included those in their final year of high school, as well as those in undergraduate degree programs, who expressed at least some interest in joining the CF. These students were asked several questions concerning their attitudes towards the CF, concerns over paying for post-secondary education, awareness of student assistance programs including ROTP, sources of information about the CF, and the likelihood of visiting a recruiting centre. Similar to findings in an earlier Environics study (Environics, 1997), male students (45%) are more likely than female students (35%) to be familiar with the CF. Female students (76%) are more concerned than male students (63%) about the ability to pay for post-secondary education. General awareness of assistance programs for paying for post-secondary education did not differ demographically, although male students (36%) are more aware than female students (25%) about the ROTP. Male students (50%) rather than female students (44%) are more likely to say they would enroll in the ROTP. Of particular interest is that female students (48%) rather than male students (42%) are more likely to view the ROTP as a way to have a career in the CF. Conversely, male students (53%) are more likely than female students (42%) to view the ROTP as a way to receive a subsidized education. Not

surprisingly, male students (27%) rather than female students (24%) are the most likely to suggest reducing the amount of obligatory service as a means to improve the ROTP. Awareness of RMC varies by gender, with male students (61%) much more likely to recall the name of RMC than female students (41%). Female students (51%) are much more likely than male students (29%) to say they do not know the name.

112. Officer cadets attending RMC in February 1998 were surveyed as to their impressions of the ROTP and life at RMC. There are no gender-based differences in the reasons why RMC was selected over a civilian university. The likelihood that respondents will report a good quality education as a positive aspect of the ROTP is highest among male cadets, while female cadets are more likely to report that comradeship is the most positive aspect of the ROTP. Female cadets (80%) as compared to male cadets (74%) are more likely to view RMC as an elite university. Female cadets are also more likely to report that RMC is meeting their personal expectations. In assessing selected features of the ROTP, such as becoming bilingual, camaraderie, learning athletic skills, and learning leadership skills, female cadets hold the most decidedly positive view that learning athletic skills is important and female cadets are also more decidedly positive on the aspect of learning leadership skills. In assessing the course selection at RMC, female cadets (70%) agree more than male cadets (57%) that the degree options are limited. Female cadets (59%) are more likely than male cadets (51%) to feel that RMC is a place where male and female students are treated equally. In fact, female cadets (80%) are more likely than male cadets (71%) to disagree that if there was another way to become an officer in the CF aside from attending RMC, they would have pursued it. However, the vast majority of female cadets (78%) feel that they did not have enough information to select their MOC, as compared to only half of the male cadets (51%). It is interesting to note that the results of this study showed some gender-based differences, but many more significant differences were based on the length of time the cadets have served at RMC. The longer they have been enrolled, the more negative the responses. Of concern is that the erosion of attitudes is closely linked with the intention of the officer cadet to not remain in the military at the conclusion of the period of obligatory service.

113. As the last part of this study, 20 in-depth interviews were conducted with individuals who left the ROTP for other than academic reasons before graduating. There are no gender-based differences in the reasons for joining the ROTP, the impressions of obligatory service or reasons for leaving the ROTP. Generally the former cadets reported that nothing is wrong with the ROTP. However one female participant did find that RMC is a bit of an "old boy's network" and that it is sometimes "hard to belong". The view of the majority of those interviewed was that men and women are treated equitably while in the ROTP. Two women however did report that there is substantial discrimination and an underlying impression that women do not belong in the military. They went on to add that this sense of not belonging varies across different MOCs. Both of these women indicated that their belief that men and women are treated differently had no impact on their decision to leave the military. From the interviews, it was concluded that the female cadets who joined the ROTP are a bit more prepared to meet the challenges and a bit more aware of what the program would be like. Overall, the women

are more mature than the men and are less likely to have joined for reasons like the appeal of the uniform or patriotism.

Summary

114. A greater percentage of female members of the CF are in the training system as compared with their male counterparts, particularly in the operational environments. Although there appears to be no significant difference in the overall pass rates of successful male and female enrollees, women tend to face greater challenges. The combat arms environment remains particularly problematic. Women now account for 25% of the cadet population at RMC, but face challenges related to self-perception, the significance of male sports programs, and social factors. The key in graduating more officers from ROTP and RMC is not solely going to be achieved by increasing awareness of the program. While enhancing awareness can be an important component, a more effective mechanism is the selection of candidates for whom the role of military officer is their chosen occupation. In doing this, it will be important to focus efforts on women since they are more likely than men to view the ROTP as a way to have a career in the military. Men are more likely to view the ROTP as a way to receive a subsidized education. In the analysis of attitudes of officer cadets at RMC, it is interesting to note that the major differences are not gender based, but rather based on the amount of time served at RMC. The decline in attitudes over time, which is closely linked with the intention of the officer cadet to remain in the military at the conclusion of the period of obligatory service, should be addressed.

VI: OCCUPATIONAL ANALYSIS

MOC Distribution Trends

115. The MOC distributions for men and women in the CF have been affected by the downsizing efforts of the Regular Force in the early to mid-1990's. Not only were enrolments severely curtailed as many MOCs were closed for recruitment, the CF also focussed primarily on its operational roles, reducing many of its support MOCs. Although the MOC group distributions for male officers and NCMs have been quite stable over the period since 1989, there are slight differences because of downsizing (Tables XIII and XIV). The MOC group distributions for both male officers and NCMs had slightly higher proportions in the operational MOC groups in 1998 as compared to 1989. Almost 68% of male officers and nearly 57% of male NCMs are employed in the operational MOC groups.

116. The MOC group distribution for female NCMs has also been relatively stable over the period, with a slightly higher proportion in the operational MOC groups in 1998 (22.2%). It is the MOC group distribution for female officers which has changed the most. The proportion of female officers in the operational MOC groups has almost doubled over the period, from 17.8% to 31.8%. The largest increase is observed in the Naval Operational/Technical MOC group, which accounted for only 2.3% of female officers in 1989 but accounted for 11.2% by the beginning of 1998. The traditional MOC groups of Medical/Dental and Support MOCs still account for over half of both female officers and NCMs. (The individual MOC distributions within each of the MOC groups can be found in Annexes B through G.)

Table XIII: Regular Force Officer MOC Distributions

OFFICER	WOMEN		MEN	
MOC GROUP	1989	1998	1989	1998
COMBAT ARMS	0.4%	4.6%	14.9%	20.8%
NAVAL OP/TECH	2.3%	11.2%	14.5%	15.2%
AIR OP/TECH	15.1%	16.0%	33.7%	31.9%
ENG/COMM	9.3%	8.7%	14.4%	11.9%
MEDICAL/DENTAL	39.0%	26.2%	5.6%	4.8%
SUPPORT	33.9%	33.3%	16.9%	15.4%

Table XIV: Regular Force NCM MOC Distributions

	WOMEN		MEN	
NCM MOC GROUP	1989	1998	1989	1998
COMBAT ARMS	0.7%	1.8%	20.4%	24.7%
NAVAL OP/TECH	2.9%	6.3%	12.6%	14.7%
AIR OP/TECH	15.5%	14.1%	18.6%	17.3%
ENG/COMM	13.8%	13.1%	21.2%	19.9%
MEDICAL/DENTAL	8.3%	9.4%	2.9%	2.4%
SUPPORT	58.8%	55.3%	24.3%	21.0%

117. There is only a handful of MOCs in the CF which have yet to have any women serve in them. Most of them are terminal trades for the NCMs which are comprised of senior ranks, and women have not served long enough in the corresponding feeder trades to be eligible for those MOCs. The Flight Engineer MOC for officers has yet to have any women in it, as well as the Roman Catholic Chaplain MOC but the restrictions on that MOC are not set by the CF. For the NCMs, the Naval Electronic Technician (Systems) MOC, the Marine Engineer Artificer MOC, the Clearance Diver and Clearance Diver Technician MOCs, and the Construction and Maintenance Technician MOC have yet to have any women serve in them.

Gender Differences in Vocational Interests

118. Based on the results above, it could be hypothesized that men and women have preferences for certain types of MOCs. Although employment restrictions for women in the CF were removed after the Tribunal decision in 1989, the MOC group distributions for female officers and NCMs have not changed substantially, with the majority of women still in the Medical/Dental and Support MOCs. In a recent study by PRT[1], gender differences in vocational interests were examined, using Holland's theory of vocational personalities and work environments as a theoretical rationale (Woycheshin, 1998). Holland's theory is based on four assumptions: that most people can be classified according to six personality types (Realistic, Investigative, Artistic, Social, Enterprising, or Conventional); that environments where people live and work can also be classified according to these types on the basis of the personality type that is dominant, or most prevalent, in that environment; that people tend to search for an environment that is the same as their personality type; and that behaviours such as choice of vocation and vocational achievement are determined by the interaction between personality and environment type. In addition, Holland's theory proposes the concept of congruence, that people perform best in environments which match their types.

119. The Canadian Work Preference Inventory (CWPI) was used in this study as the operational measure of Holland's theory. It uses five different types of interest scales: Methodical, which describes a preference for work that is clearly defined and under the direction and supervision of others; Objective, which describes a preference for working with tools, equipment and machinery on repair and 'hands-on' type of work; Innovative, which reflects a scientific or academic orientation with a focus on problem solving;

Directive, which describes a preference for taking charge; and Social, which represents a preference for working with and helping people. Holland's theory proposes that people search for an environment that is the same as their personality type, thus people of a certain CWPI type should find occupations of a similar type more attractive than occupations of a dissimilar type.

120. It is noted in Woycheshin's study that men typically score higher than women in the Objective factor and women score higher than men in the Social factor. The other three factors have very similar scores for men and women, with the male scores only slightly higher. Thus it could be assumed that men are more attracted to Objective type MOCs and women would be more attracted to Social type MOCs. This is born out by a survey conducted for the study, which asked the participants, who were university students in introductory psychology courses, to rate the attractiveness of a sample of NCM MOCs. The male participants rated most MOCs more highly than the female participants, while the female participants rated the Administrative Clerk, Steward, Postal Clerk, Dental Clinical Assistant and Medical Assistant MOCs more highly.

121. The results of this study indicate that the CWPI could be of some use in the classification of NCM applicants. An applicant with a high Objective factor should find technical MOCs relatively more appealing, and applicants with a low Objective factor should find administrative MOCs relatively more appealing. The implication of these results is that despite a candidate achieving the required aptitude level for a MOC, the person may not want to serve in that occupation because of gender-based differences in the perception of the MOC. For example, despite having the aptitude to be in the Artillery (Field) MOC, the results of this study indicate that a woman would be typically less likely to serve in that MOC than a man, and despite having the aptitude to be a Steward, a man would be typically less likely to want to serve in that MOC than a woman. The effects of socialization, role-modelling and learned behaviour can not be ignored. It should be noted, however, that given the range of scores for the attractiveness ratings, there will be, for example, some women who would rate Artillery (Field) as an acceptable MOC. When viewed on an individual basis, a favourable combination of aptitude, interest and occupational attractiveness ratings could therefore result in a much better match between individuals and the MOCs to which they are assigned.

Occupational Transfers

122. Between 1989 and 1997, 7,687 men and 718 women transferred from one MOC to another (Table XV). (This excludes commissions from the ranks which are analyzed in the career progression section, MOC transfers due to movement in a feeder/terminal MOC series, and MOC re-structuring.) Over half of the occupational transfers for men were in the Combat Arms MOC group (54.0%), while the largest proportion of occupational transfers for women were in the Support MOC group (24.5%). It is interesting to note that the occupational transfers affecting personnel in the Combat Arms MOC group generally involved transfers out of the group (under the Land Operations Trade Reassignment Program (LOTRP)), but the occupational transfers affecting personnel in the Support MOC group generally involved transfers within the group.

123. The female share of occupational transfers exceeds the average female representation rate over the period for all of the MOC groups. If it is assumed that the male rate of occupational transfers is the norm, the actual number of female occupational transfers far exceeds the expected number based on this rate in all cases. It would appear from these numbers that women have not been disadvantaged in terms of occupational transfers, possibly indicating a substantial effort on the part of the CF to retain women rather than having them be released from the military.

Table XV: Occupational Transfers in the Regular Force (1989-1997)

	WOMEN	MEN	TOTAL	FEMALE SHARE OF TRANSFERS	AVG FEMALE REPRESENTATION
COMBAT ARMS	71	4,148	4,219	1.7%	0.5%
NAVAL OP/TECH	111	1,367	1,478	7.5%	3.7%
AIR OP/TECH	119	698	817	14.6%	7.3%
ENG/COMM	152	795	947	16.1%	7.2%
MEDICAL/DENTAL	89	141	230	38.7%	32.6%
SUPPORT	176	538	714	24.6%	22.0%
TOTAL	718	7,687	8,405	8.5%	10.7%

Component Transfers in the Combat Arms

124. As part of the PRT study which analyzed the retention of women in the combat arms, the factors influencing Reserve Force members' decision-making in reference to component transfer to the Regular Force combat arms were examined (Davis, 1998a). Focus groups were designed to explore issues impacting upon the career development of female members of the Reserve Force combat arms occupations, as well as the perceptions of women and men in reference to Regular Force combat arms employment. The data collected in the study were exploratory in nature, however, as participation in the focus groups did not provide full representation of Reserve Force combat arms membership.

125. This study suggested that the primary deterrents to component transfer, for women and men, are perceptions in reference to the impact on family stability, employment of spouse, satisfaction with civilian career, and the different demands of full-time versus part-time 'soldiering' (Davis, 1998a). Although some women and men in the Reserve Force reported issues and concerns related to the employment of women in the combat arms, they were not reported as frequently or as intensely as they have been described in the Regular Force studies (Davis, 1997; Davis et al, 1998). Consequently, perceptions of gender inequity are not interpreted as a primary deterrent for women in transferring from the Reserve Force to the Regular Force combat arms. However, when men and women were asked if they had considered joining the Regular Force, female focus group participants were less likely to indicate that they had considered a component transfer to the Regular Force than male participants. Male and female participants who did express an interest in the Regular Force frequently indicated that they were interested

in an MOC other than combat arms. Recommendations for further research were presented in this report.

Summary

126. The MOC group distributions differ by gender, with the majority of men in the operational MOC groups and the majority of women in the support type of MOC groups. The downsizing efforts of the Regular Force in conjunction with the CF's focus on its operational capabilities have increased the proportion of both men and women in the operational MOC groups. However, a recent study has shown that there are gender differences in vocational interests. Although an applicant may have an aptitude for a given MOC, they may not want to serve in that occupation because of gender-based differences in the perception of that MOC. Thus, a favourable combination of aptitude, interest and occupational attractiveness could result in a better match between individuals and the MOCs to which they are assigned. Women tend to transfer MOCs more than would be expected based on the number of occupational transfers for men, which may indicate an effort on the part of the CF to retain these women rather than have them leave the military or a failure on the part of the recruiting system to adequately match women's interests with the appropriate occupation. Gender inequity does not appear to be a primary deterrent for female Reserve Force members to transfer to the Regular Force, but women are generally less likely to consider such a transfer than their male counterparts.

VII - OPERATIONAL EXPERIENCE

Persian Gulf War

127. During the Persian Gulf War, Canada deployed over 3,000 Regular and Reserve Force personnel. Of these, 240 were women (6.7%). Personnel were dispatched to the Gulf without gender restriction - women served in the theatre of operations aboard ship, with air squadrons and with field units. Criteria for selection were based on qualifications, experience, and overall suitability, i.e. the best person for the job was selected. It was reported to the MABWCF, however, that some supervisors would not accept women who volunteered for service in the Gulf, based on the supervisor's perception of women's "proper" role (MABWCF, 1991). In spite of this, women reported that throughout the deployment, they were treated as equals with the men, and were generally well accepted.

128. Approximately 150 Navy women served in theatre headquarters and on board HMCS PROTECTEUR, a replenishment ship. No difficulties were encountered with integration. In fact, the presence of women on board ship was considered by the officers in command, ship's company and observers to have a calming influence during a very tense period. Among the 575 member Army contingent stationed in Qatar, 70 were women who served in the headquarters and in the First Canadian Field Hospital. Following the Gulf War, CF personnel arrived on the Iraq-Kuwait border to clear mines and unexploded shells to establish a safe patrol route through the demilitarized zone. Six women from a combat engineer regiment, including one officer, served on this mission. Women were also among the 63 members of a field ambulance unit deployed to offer medical help to Kurdish refugees camped on Iraq's northern borders with Turkey and Iran after the war.

Women in the Combat Arms

129. Women in the combat arms, as reported in the training section, face many challenges. As part of the PRT study which analyzed the retention of women in the combat arms, the experiences of 31 women who were previously employed in the combat arms between 1989 and 1997 were examined (Davis et al, 1998). The physical strength and stamina required to meet the physical standards within the combat arms presents a considerable challenge to many women; however, barriers to women in the combat arms are much more complex. Women report facing numerous social and psychological barriers which have an impact on their ability to meet physical standards, and have an over-riding effect on whether or not they will be deemed 'suitable' for the combat arms, regardless of whether they have met the physical standards. The very fact that they are women in a male-defined and male-dominated environment has resulted in ambiguous perceptions and beliefs, on the part of peers, supervisors and instructors. Perceptions of their ability and motivation are based, to a significant degree, on cultural (male) assumptions related to accepted, expected, and/or 'appropriate' social and sexual behaviours and gender roles. Consequently, these women report being treated quite

differently than their male peers, by both male peers and superiors, in a way that put them at considerable disadvantage within the training and employment environment. Several recommendations are made in this report for further research, and improvements to selection and training processes in the combat arms.

130. In the previous Davis study (Davis, 1997), men expressed the belief that women are not strong enough to perform the full range of required tasks within the combat arms, and if women are initially strong enough to meet the physical standards in training and employment, they will not be able to maintain this physical standard over an extended period of time. However, as gender issues in the combat arms are acted out, it appears that issues related to physical strength and stamina are simply a curtain that masks other issues (Davis, 1998a). As long as women are perceived to be not as strong as men, it does not matter whether they have met the standards or not. However, if women are perceived to be strong enough to meet the standards, the standards are questioned, the social and sexual activities of women are scrutinized, women's leadership ability is questioned, and women's perceptions of harassment and inequitable treatment are questioned.

131. In the interviews that were conducted, women could identify, without exception, peers, instructors and/or supervisors who supported them as individuals, and also supported the presence of women in the combat arms generally (Davis, 1998a). However, it was rare that a woman reported that individual peers who were responsible for gender-specific name-calling and petty intimidation were held accountable for their behaviour. Leadership supported women on an individual and personal basis, but little concrete action was taken to intervene and stop harassment, discrimination and negative influences on mixed gender team building.

132. Group processes have frequently been identified as a key component of operational effectiveness, and as having a significant influence on the acceptance and integration of women (Davis, 1998a). The women interviewed in the Davis study identified a variety of influences that they believed contributed to the non-acceptance of women in the combat arms environment. Several noted that they had the most difficulty with their peer group, several identified older instructors and supervisors as the problem and others believed that the younger males had the most difficulty with women in the combat arms. Frequently women believed that their peer group accepted them in the beginning, but became influenced by a small group of peers within that group, as well as some instructors, to eventually withdraw their support from women. Analysis of women's experience suggests that 'suitability' for employment in the combat arms is determined through a peer selection group process that is guided and maintained by instructors and supervisors.

133. Women often described a sense of ambiguity related to the definition of required physical standards (Davis, 1998a). On the one hand, they were aware of the quantifiable standards such as the number of push-ups, sit-ups, and time constraints put on the completion of a run or a forced march. However, once these standards were met, an additional subjective level of 'physical performance' was required. The physical standard

for a particular course was based on 'how far, how fast, how many...', the most physical student could perform. Analysis of experiences such as these suggests that training techniques which are presented as team builders actually have the effect of dividing and destroying a team that is not comprised of a relatively homogeneous group of males.

134. Women who have spent time in the combat arms training and/or employment environment consistently describe a total experience that includes harassment, intimidation, and petty incidents on a day-to-day basis (Davis, 1998a). They report that women are commonly referred to as 'bitches', 'sluts', 'cunts', 'whores', 'split-asses', etc, either directly or 'behind their backs'. Informal discussion among male peers, and in the presence of the women, was frequently loaded with sexual innuendo, causing several women to fear sexual aggression from their male peers and, in some cases, their superiors. In several cases, these fears were founded; one rape and several physical assaults requiring medical treatment or hospitalization were reported. Without exception, women understood that women were not welcome or accepted within the combat arms, and expressed considerable frustration that they were not 'even given a chance'.

135. Most often, women who did not meet the standards were unable to predict what the outcome might have been if they had been provided with an equitable and discrimination free environment which allowed them to focus on the relevant training demands (Davis, 1998a). At the beginning of their training, most women believed that they had the ability to meet physical and other requirements of combat arms, but their motivation and confidence was eroded within the training environment. Many women described an experience of being systematically worn down psychologically, resulting in a gradual loss of interest, and less and less inclination and/or ability to keep up with the physical and/or academic demands of training. Their self-perception of ability and potential frequently shifted to one which more accurately reflected the common perception within the combat arms in relation to women's abilities.

136. A small number of women did report a relatively positive experience within the combat arms training and employment environment (Davis, 1998a). Success, in most of these cases, was attributed to an awareness that the gendered processes that they encountered in the combat arms was a male combat arms cultural phenomena, rather than an attack on them as individuals. These women also perceived quickly that their social and sexual lives would have to be above reproach and kept separate from their combat arms peers and chain of command. These women demonstrated an extraordinary understanding of male group processes and their relationship to women's performance and social activity. In spite of their relatively positive experiences, most of these women had pursued another MOC at some time during training or employment in the combat arms and/or left the CF and the combat arms because they couldn't get an occupation transfer into the MOC of their choice.

137. The physical and psychological environment found in the Davis studies had several recurring themes. The majority of women who were interviewed expressed frustration with the recruitment process which they felt did not prepare them for the social/gender-based issues that they would confront. At the time of recruitment, these

women believed that they were selected for training and employment in the combat arms because the institution as whole, including the instructors and personnel, was accepting of women in these roles.

138. It is a common belief that the CF is using a quota system to increase the representation of women in the combat arms (Davis, 1998a). Both women and men are against a quota system - women believe that quotas undermine their credibility within the combat arms and men believe that quotas result in women being 'pushed through' when they can not do the job. Although the majority of women initially believed that they were selected for training and employment in the combat arms based on their merit, they frequently questioned whether or not they were, in fact, recruited only because they were women.

139. Women resent women whom they perceive have demonstrated irresponsible social and sexual behaviour, and men perceive women's social activities in a way that allows them to understand women as a sexual resource (Davis, 1998a). Many women reported that regardless of how they conducted themselves socially, it was rumoured by men that they had slept with numerous men in the unit. Men expressed the belief in the earlier Davis study that women have a 'sexual power' advantage to influence instructor and superiors that men do not have. Finally, women do not express confidence that harassment and more serious incidents such as assault are adequately dealt with by the chain of command.

140. Several of the women interviewed in the Davis study experienced combat arms training as the only woman in their peer group. This resulted in a range of problems, including fear of aggression from male peers, extreme social isolation, and perceptions of a disproportionate day-to-day workload with no peers to assist with cleaning duties, etc. Although these women frequently found some social and moral support within their male peer group, they felt that it would have improved their experience if there had been another woman to talk to. As well, several felt that if there had been at least one more woman, there would have been less day-to-day focus on individual women. On the other hand, where there was more than one woman in the training and/or employment environment, women frequently described situations in which women competed among themselves, rather than supported one another.

141. The interviews of women who had been in the combat arms suggest that 'suitability' for the combat arms was understood not as an evaluation of occupational attributes, but instead completely dependent on whether peers and instructors would allow them to be 'suitable' (Davis, 1998a). The perception among women is that the formal regulations and informal processes, that were maintained and supported by instructors and superiors, served to reinforce the belief that women are not suitable candidates for service in the combat arms.

142. Throughout training, women and men are continuously pushed to perform to the standard of the physically strongest performer on the course, often resulting in discouragement and/or physical injury. In hindsight, it was not clear to many women

whether this was a test of their physical ability or their psychological stamina, but they have come to understand it as a non-productive process that impaired rather than improved their performance (Davis, 1998a). Several women indicated that men were also injured frequently, but evidence suggests that women are treated differently than their male peers in the aftermath of an injury.

143. In the Davis study, the women frequently expressed the belief that when they are deemed unsuitable for the combat arms, they are considered unsuitable for the CF as a whole. Frequently, women cited specific examples in which their male peers were cease trained and given an occupation transfer, while women were immediately released or continuously re-coursed until they were worn down psychologically and they requested release from the CF. These women feel that they 'wasted their time', with involvement in a process that humiliated them, fostered low self-esteem, and often resulted in physical injury. Not surprisingly, when asked what their advice would be to a young woman who was considering enrolling in the combat arms today, many responded with a quick and decisive "Don't Do It!". However, most emphasized that a female combat arms candidate should make sure that she knew what she was getting into, and make sure that she was physically and psychologically prepared to enter a male-dominated environment that, for the most part, does not want women.

Female Fighter Pilots

144. Three women have qualified to be fighter pilots since 1989, but all of these women have either left the CF or moved on to other duties. An employment systems review is currently underway in the Air Force to determine why women are not becoming fighter pilots (D Air PM&S, 1998b). The study of the Pilot Operational Training Unit's selection and assignment process will include consultation with female ex-fighter pilots, compilation of quantitative data on the progress of male and female pilots through different phases of training, and the surveying and interviewing students at different phases of training.

Future Submarine Service

145. The Canadian Human Rights Tribunal in 1989 stated that, because of privacy requirements and the unique nature of submarine service, excluding women from service on the OBERON class of submarines was a bona fide occupational requirement. However, it also noted that if and when the CF operated types of submarines where privacy issues were not as prominent as in the OBERON class, the restriction could be examined again. With the recent purchase of UPHOLDER class submarines, the Navy is reviewing its policy of excluding women from submarine service (Bradley, 1998). The Navy's submarine study is going to include: a review of the factors considered in excluding women from OBERON service; an examination of practices in other Navies; a review of research literature (if available) on minimal privacy and hygiene requirements; an examination and comparison of OBERON and UPHOLDER habitability; an analysis of factors expected to affect submarine service from now until 2010; a review of lessons learned during the integration of women in surface vessels; and a survey to be

administered to men and women serving in hard sea MOCs and to men serving in submarines in an effort to examine the interest in volunteering for UPHOLDER submarine service and to query general attitudes about submarine service for women. The UPHOLDER class of submarines does provide a number of habitability improvements over the OBERONs, but they are still submarines and could not be termed spacious.

Summary

146. There has been an improvement in the equitable assignment of tasks to women and men in both static and operational roles. Women have participated in peacekeeping operations and served in the Persian Gulf War with distinction. However, some limitations still apparently exist. There is the question as to why there are currently no female fighter pilots in the CF. As well, problems associated with women in the combat arms continue to persist. There has also been the perception that many United Nations, foreign liaison and foreign staff college positions are formally or informally designated as 'male only', thereby precluding women from competing for these career enhancing opportunities (MABGICF, 1994).

VIII - CAREER PROGRESSION

Rank Distributions

147. The analysis of the officer rank distribution includes officers from the rank of Officer Cadet to Colonel. General officer ranks were excluded, as to date there have been only two women who have achieved the rank of Brigadier General or above. Since 1989, there has been some progress in the proportion of women who are in the senior ranks of Major and above. Thirteen percent of female officers were Majors or above as of January 1998, whereas only 7% were in these ranks in 1989. By comparison, 34% of male officers are in the senior ranks.

148. The number of women at the senior officer ranks has increased since 1989, whereas the number of women at the junior officer ranks has decreased (Table XVI). This is a reflection of the limited recruiting during the early to mid-1990's. The number of men at each officer rank has also decreased, again a reflection of the downsizing efforts of the CF. The most senior ranking female officers have typically been in the support MOCs, however, it should be noted that in 1998, a woman in the Air Operations/Technical MOC group was promoted to Lieutenant Colonel and appointed the first female commander of a front-line operational squadron. (The rank distributions for each of the officer MOC groups can be found in the corresponding Annexes B through G.)

Table XVI: Rank Distributions for Regular Force Officers

	WOMEN		MEN	
RANK	1989	1998	1989	1998
COL	5 (0.3%)	6 (0.4%)	378 (2.3%)	251 (2.2%)
LCOL	8 (0.5%)	24 (1.5%)	1157 (7.0%)	863 (7.4%)
MAJ	111 (6.5%)	174 (11.1%)	3378 (20.3%)	2869 (24.6%)
CAPT	701 (40.8%)	787 (50.5%)	6256 (37.7%)	5453 (46.7%)
LT	329 (19.2%)	164 (10.5%)	1961 (11.8%)	709 (6.1%)
2LT	169 (9.8%)	98 (6.2%)	1170 (7.0%)	409 (3.5%)
OCDT	394 (22.9%)	309 (19.8%)	2313 (13.9%)	1103 (9.5%)
TOTAL	1717(100.0%)	1562(100.0%)	16613(100.0%)	11657(100.0%)

149. The NCM rank distribution includes members from the rank of Private to Chief Warrant Officer. Just as for officers, there has been some progress over the period from 1989 in the proportion of women who are in the senior ranks of Sergeant and above. Twenty one percent of female NCMs were Sergeants or above as of January 1998, whereas only 13.5% were in these ranks in 1989. By comparison, almost 29% of male NCMs are currently in the senior ranks. Note that for NCMs, the proportions of women and men in the senior ranks (21% versus 29%) are much closer than the proportions for female and male senior officers (13% versus 34%).

150. Similar to the trends seen for officers, the number of women at the senior NCM ranks has increased since 1989, whereas the number of women at the junior NCM ranks has decreased (Table XVII). The number of men at each NCM rank except Corporal has also decreased, again a reflection of the downsizing efforts of the CF. It should also be noted that most of the senior-ranking female NCMs have been in the support MOCs. (The rank distributions for each of the NCM MOC groups can be found in the corresponding Annexes B through G.)

Table XVII: Rank Distributions for Regular Force NCMs

	WOMEN		MEN	
RANK	**1989**	**1998**	**1989**	**1998**
CWO	3 (0.1%)	10 (0.1%)	1371 (2.2%)	608 (1.4%)
MWO	28 (0.4%)	67 (1.3%)	3141 (5.0%)	1735 (4.0%)
WO	154 (2.2%)	268 (5.3%)	6012 (9.6%)	3627 (8.4%)
SGT	751 (10.8%)	735 (14.4%)	9325 (15.0%)	6534 (15.1%)
MCPL	1081 (15.6%)	950 (18.6%)	10476 (16.8%)	8215 (18.9%)
CPL	2846 (41.1%)	2583 (50.7%)	17188 (27.7%)	17209 (39.7%)
PTE	2060 (29.8%)	488 (9.6%)	14796 (23.7%)	5430 (12.5%)
TOTAL	6923(100.0%)	5101(100.0%)	62309(100.0%)	43358(100.0%)

Promotion Rate Analysis

151. There were more senior ranking women in the CF by 1998 than there were in 1989, which is encouraging since the CF has undergone substantial downsizing during this period. However, it also has to be determined if the rate of progress of women into the senior ranks of Major and above is comparable with that of their male counterparts. Therefore, an analysis of average promotion rates for men and women in each of the senior ranks was conducted, using promotion data from 1989 to 1997. The analysis was limited in many cases because there were not enough eligible women for promotion to the senior ranks, particularly in the operational type of MOC groups. Promotions to the junior ranks were not analyzed because they tend to be based more on time in rank and eligibility is difficult to capture from the database.

152. Where there have been sufficient data for analysis, average promotion rates[4] tend to be higher for men than women in the senior officer ranks, but generally the differences are not statistically significant at a 95% confidence level (Table XVIII). It is not surprising to observe that there have not been enough eligible women in the senior ranks of non-traditional MOC groups for analysis. However, it is of some concern that there are few eligible women for promotion to Colonel in the more traditional groups of

[4] The average promotion rate for a given rank is calculated by dividing the total number promoted to that rank between 1 January 1989 and 31 December 1997 by the total number eligible. Eligibility for promotion is based on the Entry to Promotion Zone (EPZ) date.

Medical/Dental and Support MOCs. It is also of concern to observe the substantially different rates between men and women for promotion to the rank of Major in these MOC groups. (The average promotion rates for each of the individual officer MOCs can be found in Annexes B through G.)

Table XVIII: Average Promotion Rates for Senior Regular Force Officer Ranks (1989-1997)

OFFICER MOC GROUP	MAJOR		LT COLONEL		COLONEL	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
COMBAT ARMS	N/A	7.5%	N/A	5.9%	N/A	5.7%
NAVAL OP/TECH	N/A	10.3%	N/A	5.1%	N/A	5.0%
AIR OP/TECH	5.8%	6.8%	N/A	5.5%	N/A	6.1%
ENG/COMM	13.6%	15.2%	N/A	6.1%	N/A	3.9%
MEDICAL/DENTAL	4.3%	14.7%	4.5%	5.7%	N/A	5.5%
SUPPORT	6.9%	10.5%	4.4%	5.2%	N/A	4.7%
TOTAL	5.8%	9.3%	4.2%	5.5%	N/A	5.2%

(N/A - Promotion rate was not calculated if there were less than 50 women eligible for promotion over the period.)

153. The trends observed in the promotion rates to Major in the Medical/Dental MOC group are mostly a reflection of the type of MOCs in the group. The average male promotion rate is mostly affected by the Medical MOC, which accounts for over half of the promotions for men to the Major rank. This MOC has a promotion rate to Major of roughly 60%, which has driven the overall male promotion rate to Major in the Medical/Dental MOC group upwards. On the other hand, the average promotion rate for women is influenced mainly by the Nursing MOC, which accounts for over three-quarters of the eligible women for promotion to Major. This MOC has an extremely low promotion rate of only 2%, which has driven the overall female promotion rate to Major downwards. It should be noted that the promotion rates to Major in the Medical MOC do not differ significantly by gender, however there are far fewer women in the Medical MOC so this MOC has less influence on the overall female promotion rate to Major.

154. There are two MOCs in the Medical/Dental group that may need closer examination of their promotions to the rank of Major. The Dental MOC has one of the largest differences between men and women, with promotion rates of 6% for women and 22% for men. In contrast, the Nursing MOC has not promoted any eligible male Captains to the rank of Major since before 1989.

155. The trends observed in the promotion rates to Major in the Support MOC group are due to a statistically significant difference in the promotion rates for men and women in the Logistics MOC. Only 4% of eligible female Captains have been promoted to the rank of Major between 1989 and 1997 versus 9% of eligible male Captains. This will require further analysis to determine possible causes and whether there is a systemic barrier for women in this MOC. It is interesting to note that while there appears to be a barrier to women being promoted to the rank of Major, there are no significant gender differences in the promotion rates to Lieutenant Colonel in this MOC. There are too few

eligible female Lieutenant Colonels to analyze the promotion rates to Colonel, but that in itself could be an indicator that there may be problems since more would be expected in a traditional MOC for women.

156. Average promotion rates for senior NCM ranks also tend to be higher for men than for women, with many of the differences being statistically significant at the 95% confidence level (Table XIX). The Support MOC group again appears to be particularly problematic, with the promotion rates to each of the senior ranks being significantly higher for men. In contrast, it is interesting to note that the Engineering/Communications MOC group has slightly higher promotion rates for women for those ranks where there were sufficient data for analysis. (The average promotion rates for each of the individual NCM MOCs can be found in Annexes B through G.)

Table XIX: Average Promotion Rates for Senior Regular Force NCM Ranks (1989-1997)

NCM MOC GROUP	SERGEANT		WARRANT OFFICER		MASTER WARRANT OFFICER		CHIEF WARRANT OFFICER	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
COMBAT ARMS	N/A	13.1%	N/A	9.1%	N/A	6.7%	N/A	6.4%
NAVAL OP/TECH	26.0%	14.1%	4.0%	7.6%	5.9%	9.0%	N/A	3.9%
AIR OP/TECH	6.1%	10.0%	4.8%	8.2%	N/A	20.2%	N/A	14.2%
ENG/COMM	13.1%	11.7%	11.0%	9.9%	26.9%	21.4%	N/A	9.2%
MEDICAL/DENTAL	N/A	N/A	5.6%	6.1%	5.6%	7.0%	N/A	8.3%
SUPPORT	9.8%	11.1%	4.0%	5.8%	7.7%	12.2%	3.4%	6.9%
TOTAL	11.0%	11.7%	5.3%	7.7%	9.9%	12.9%	5.0%	7.7%

(N/A - Promotion rate was not calculated if there were less than 50 women eligible for promotion over the period.)

157. The difference in promotion rates to the rank of Petty Officer Second Class (Sergeant) in the Naval Operational/Technical group, where the female promotion rate is almost double that for men, can be attributed to the type of MOCs in this group. The results for women at this rank are based on the Ocean Operator MOC, which has a high promotion rate for women, whereas very few promotions for men can be attributed to this MOC. It is interesting to note that the promotion rates to the ranks of Petty Officer First Class (Warrant Officer) and Chief Petty Officer Second Class (Master Warrant Officer) are lower for women but not significantly so.

158. The Air Operational/Technical MOC group also has statistically significant gender differences in the overall promotion rates to the ranks of Sergeant and Warrant Officer. Promotion rates to the rank of Sergeant are typically higher for men in most of the individual MOCs in this group, but only two have significant differences. The Airframe Technician MOC has substantially higher promotion rates for men (11% versus 3%). Surprisingly, the other MOC which has statistically significant different promotion rates, the Photographic Technician MOC, has higher promotion rates for women. The significant difference found in the overall promotion rates to the rank of Warrant Officer

in this MOC group is a cumulative effect since the promotion rates in the individual MOCs are generally higher for men, except for the Photographic Technician MOC, but none have significant differences.

159. The Medical/Dental MOC group results for promotion to Sergeant are inconclusive because of the promotion pattern in the Dental MOCs. There are no Master Corporals in the Dental MOCs, which are used as the basis of the promotion rate calculation to Sergeant. The Medical MOCs, with a more traditional career progression pattern, have higher average promotion rates to the rank of Sergeant for men than for women, at 13% versus 8%.

160. As mentioned earlier, the promotion rates to the senior NCM ranks in the Support MOC group appear to be most problematic. There are statistically significant differences at each of the senior ranks. The promotion rates are typically higher for men than they are for women, with significant differences in the following MOCs: Administrative Clerk (Sgt), Cook (Sgt), Traffic Technician (Sgt), Mobile Support Equipment Operator (Sgt), Finance Clerk (WO), Supply Technician (WO, CWO). There are no individual MOCs that have significant differences in the promotion rates to Master Warrant Officer.

161. A more extensive analysis of promotions to the senior ranks of officers and NCMs was conducted in 1995 (Bender et al, 1995a; Bender et al, 1995b). These studies examined additional factors, such as eligibility rates, the female share of enrolments, the female share of promotions, time in rank and time in previous rank, but the findings were similar. There are discrepancies in the promotion patterns in the senior ranks for men and women, and further analysis will be required to determine the causes.

The Appraisal System

162. The CF Personnel Appraisal System (CFPAS) was introduced in 1997. Its aim is to develop CF members through constructive feedback and to accurately assess the level of performance and potential demonstrated for career administration purposes. The CFPAS consists of two inter-related processes administered at the unit level: the Performance Development Review (PDR) which provides a standardized CF format for feedback, in which the supervisor and member can discuss performance and potential and career development, and the Personnel Evaluation Report (PER) which assesses and reports the member's performance and potential for retention and advancement.

163. As part of the pre-implementation evaluation of the new appraisal system, a review was conducted for gender bias (Carswell, 1997). The language of the form and the instructions were found to be free of gender bias. However, two assessment factors were found to be potentially problematic from a gender perspective, specifically 'Dedication' and 'Employability'. These items refer to the manner in which the member balances personal concerns and employment requirements, but do not adequately address what constitutes an appropriate balance of priorities. While this issue would be of concern for all CF members, it could have a differential impact on women, who are more likely to have primary caregiver responsibilities. The issue of 'Deployability' was also a

concern from a gender perspective. A member with a temporary medical category due to pregnancy would presumably be rated as non-deployable, although this restriction would be applicable only for a limited period. This was of some concern since a non-deployable rating would presumably have a negative impact on merit board assessments.

164. In the final version of the CFPAS, 'Dedication' is a potential factor used in the assessment of potential for promotion to the next higher rank and 'Employability' falls under the reviewing officer's comments. The concerns about employability/deployability have been addressed - a member who is not employable due to a temporary condition, such as a temporary medical category or approved compassionate circumstance, shall be given a "yes" rating. Only if the situation does not correct itself, should a supervisor use a "no" rating, and then it has to be substantiated. The assessment factor of 'Dedication' still has to be treated with caution because it requires the supervisor to consider whether the member gives the CF high priority in relation to self-interests and the amount and frequency of extra effort expended by the individual on behalf of the CF, as well as recognize and reward the ability to balance organizational needs with own needs (CFPAS, 1997).

CF Command and Staff College

165. Past gender-based employment policies, which restricted women from serving in all CF roles, reduced their competitiveness for selection to the CF Command and Staff College (CFCSC) for officers. To address this inequality of opportunity, it has been directed that a limited number of additional CFCSC vacancies be reserved for women who will be selected from a special merit list (CANFORGEN 053/97). Course loading at the CFCSC has been increased at the same time to accommodate these additional positions and to ensure that no officer will be disadvantaged by this program. This is a temporary measure, which is to be in place for approximately three years to accommodate women affected by transitional employment policies.

166. The effects of this special program are readily visible when the female representation rate of CFCSC students is examined over time. Between 1989 and 1996, the female representation rate averaged 2.4%. In 1997, the female representation rate jumped to 11.4%, which is commensurate with the female representation rate for CF officers as a whole.

Commissioning From the Ranks

167. NCMs who are commissioned from the ranks have acquired a level of military experience and are considered to have the necessary personal qualities to make them suitable for employment as officers. These members are nominated by the Commanding Officer based on personal knowledge or the advice of unit officers. Approximately 1,160 men and 128 women were commissioned from the ranks between 1989 and 1997 (Table XX). The largest proportion of male NCMs who were commissioned during this period came from the Air Operational/Technical MOC group (25.5%), while half of the female NCMs came from the Support MOC group. The female share of commissions from the

ranks is noticeably below the female representation rate in the Air Operational/Technical and Medical/Dental MOC groups but above in the Support MOC group. Thus it is not surprising when the expected number of female commissions is calculated to find that the observed number falls short in the Air Operational/Technical and Medical/Dental MOC groups but is above in the Support MOC group. Further analysis would be required to determine if there is a systemic barrier to women being commissioned from the ranks.

Table XX: Commissions from the Ranks (1989-1997)

	WOMEN	MEN	TOTAL	FEMALE SHARE OF CFR	AVG FEMALE REPRESENTATION
COMBAT ARMS	0	160	160	0.0%	0.4%
NAVAL OP/TECH	8	185	193	4.1%	3.5%
AIR OP/TECH	18	297	315	5.7%	8.4%
ENG/COMM	19	265	284	6.7%	7.2%
MEDICAL/DENTAL	19	63	82	23.2%	27.6%
SUPPORT	64	194	258	24.8%	22.4%
TOTAL	128	1,164	1,292	9.9%	10.8%

Summary

168. There are more senior ranking women in the CF today than there were in 1989. This is encouraging since the CF has undergone substantial downsizing during this period. However, the rate of progress of women into the senior ranks of Major and above for officers and Sergeant and above for NCMs is not generally comparable to that of their male counterparts. Overall trends indicate that average promotion rates tend to be higher for men than they are for women. It is recommended that problematic MOCs are further analyzed to determine possible causes and whether there are systemic barriers for women in these MOCs. Female representation in the senior ranks will not increase substantially if there is not equitable career progression for both men and women.

169. During the development phase of the new CF appraisal system, it was reviewed for gender bias. Although the language of the form and instructions were free of gender bias, some of the assessment factors could have an adverse impact on women. Most of the concerns were taken into account in the final version. Female participation in the CF Command and Staff College increased substantially in 1997 due to a special program which is aimed at correcting a previous systemic barrier which impacted on women's competitiveness for selection to the College. On the other hand, female NCMs tend to receive fewer commissions from the ranks than do male NCMs, and this may need to be studied further.

IX - ATTRITION

Attrition Rate Analysis

170. The national economic conditions plus the downsizing efforts of the CF have influenced attrition patterns of both female and male members since 1989 (Figure 3). Attrition rates[5] fell during the recession in the late 1980's and early 1990's, and then increased while the CF offered FRPs between 1992 and 1996 for NCMs and between 1994 and 1996 for officers. In 1997 when the CF ceased the FRPs, attrition rates began to decrease once again. It can be observed that female attrition rates have generally been higher than those for men. Average attrition rates for the nine-year period reflect this trend, at 8.9% for women and 8.2% for men.

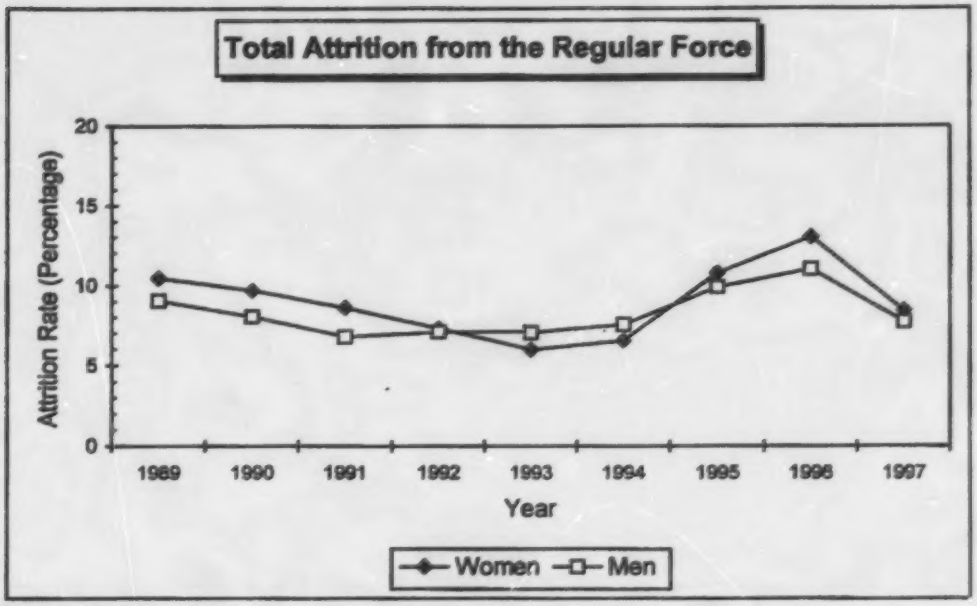

Figure 3 - Total Attrition from the Regular Force

171. Attrition varies substantially by MOC group, but the trends are similar for both officers and NCMs (Table XXI). Female attrition rates have generally been higher than those for men, substantially so in the non-traditional MOC groups for women such as Combat Arms and the Naval Operational/Technical MOCs. In areas where women have been employed for a relatively long period, such as the Medical/Dental and Support MOC groups, gender differences in attrition rates are quite modest. (Attrition rate data for each of the individual MOCs can be found in Annexes B through G.)

[5] Attrition rates are calculated by dividing the total number of releases during a given year by the total strength at the beginning of that year.

Table XXI: Average Attrition Rates in Regular Force MOC Groups (1989-1997)

MOC GROUP	OFFICERS		NCMS	
	Female	Male	Female	Male
COMBAT ARMS	19.9%	6.7%	39.5%	10.3%
NAVAL OP/TECH	16.9%	7.4%	16.4%	8.3%
AIR OP/TECH	10.3%	8.2%	6.6%	6.9%
ENG/COMM	9.1%	8.2%	9.8%	7.6%
MEDICAL/DENTAL	10.3%	10.5%	9.6%	7.8%
SUPPORT	7.8%	8.0%	7.8%	8.0%
TOTAL	10.1%	8.2%	8.6%	8.2%

172. Analysis of female participation in the CF in 1994 revealed that trends in attrition rates also vary with rank (Bender et al, 1994a; Bender et al, 1994b). Attrition rates for women in the junior ranks were substantially higher than those for their male counterparts. It was surmised that women perhaps question their career choice early on due to personal reasons, such as family-related responsibilities, but the work environment may also play a role. Attrition rates for women in the senior ranks were slightly lower than those for their male counterparts. This is likely as a result of the larger proportion of men in the senior ranks with an entitlement to a pension.

Impact of the FRPs

173. In the fall of 1991, the MND made a defence policy announcement that resulted in the reduction of the Regular Force by approximately 8,000 personnel, from 84,000 to 76,000, within three years. The 1994 Defence White Paper and the 1995 Federal Budget dictated a further reduction to 60,000 personnel over four years. Historically, the CF was able to manage a decrease (or an increase) in its trained effective strength (TES) through a combination of measures, which included: unscheduled attrition; scheduled attrition; controls on recruiting quotas; and controls on engagement conversions under the Officer Career Development Plan (OCDP) and the Other Ranks Career Development Plan (ORCDP). However, with the continued budgetary constraints and the effects of the recession on unscheduled attrition, it was apparent by 1992 that the CF would be unable to meet its Force reduction targets through the usual measures.

174. In 1992, a new program was introduced to meet these reductions, called the Force Reduction Program (FRP), which included a compensation and benefits package for individuals in severely overborne MOCs. These individuals could volunteer for the FRP in return for their early release from service. Whereas the FRP was initially introduced to address surpluses in NCM MOCs, officer MOCs were included in 1994. The FRPs for officers and NCMs ended in 1996. One important note is that the officer FRPs were generally directed at a specific target population with a particular rank and years of

experience profile, whereas the NCM FRPs were generally open to anyone in the targeted MOCs.

175. The officer FRPs did not have a significant impact on female representation rates in the TES, despite the female take-up rates being typically higher than those for men (Table XXII). Only the 1994 FRP had higher take-up rates for male officers. A larger proportion of female officers than male officers were eligible for the FRPs, which is a reflection of some of the larger support MOCs where women were more heavily concentrated being targeted by the FRPs (Bender et al, 1995c; Bender et al, 1995d; Bender et al, 1996a).

Table XXII: Impact of Regular Force Officer FRPs

OFFICER FRP	ELIGIBILITY RATES		TAKE-UP RATES		FEMALE REPRESENTATION	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Pre-FRP	Post-FRP
1994	42.1%	36.6%	9.4%	16.5%	9.1%	9.3%
1995	65.9%	44.9%	17.9%	15.2%	9.5%	9.0%
1996	46.2%	31.6%	22.2%	21.5%	9.2%	8.9%

176. The NCM FRPs also did not have a significant impact on female representation rates, with the male take-up rates typically higher than those for women (Table XXIII). Only the 1996 FRP had substantially higher take-up rates for female NCMs, which is a reflection of the type of MOC being targeted by that FRP. All but a few of the Medical/Dental and Support type of MOCs were open for the FRP in 1996 (Bender et al, 1995e; Bender et al, 1995f; Bender et al, 1995g; Bender et al, 1995h; Bender et al, 1996b).

Table XXIII: Impact of Regular Force NCM FRPs

NCM FRP	ELIGIBILITY RATES		TAKE-UP RATES		FEMALE REPRESENTATION	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Pre-FRP	Post-FRP
1992	26.2%	33.2%	9.9%	11.1%	10.4%	10.5%
1993	11.2%	19.7%	8.4%	10.7%	10.9%	11.1%
1994	23.3%	23.8%	15.7%	14.5%	11.0%	11.0%
1995	37.7%	24.0%	20.4%	22.1%	10.9%	10.6%
1996	19.2%	18.9%	33.7%	23.7%	10.7%	10.5%

Why Do Service Personnel Leave the CF?

177. CFPARU was tasked in 1981 to conduct an on-going study aimed at gaining a more complete understanding of the attrition process, by conducting research to identify those factors contributing to service-members' decisions to leave the CF and establishing a continual data collection system which would provide descriptive information about 'leavers'. As part of this study, the Canadian Forces Attrition Information Questionnaire

(CFAIQ) was developed for those who voluntarily leave the CF. Voluntary or "unscheduled" attrition is of particular concern because it can result in additional recruiting and selection expenses, training wastage, increased administration and decreased operational effectiveness.

178. Some of the strongest influences which are associated with the formation of job attitudes and perceptions about work are: individual (e.g. age, gender, education and other characteristics that the individual brings into the organization); organizational (e.g. trade/classification, element, rank, and other characteristics that the organization gives to its members); and extra-organizational (e.g. economic conditions, unemployment rates and other external factors that potentially impact on the individual and the organization) (Lyon, 1987). Specifically, an individual's values, attitudes and perceptions about their job and the labour market create expectations about the present job and about alternative employment, which, in turn, influence the levels of satisfaction and attraction to the present job and to possible alternatives. Subsequently, the levels of satisfaction and attraction influence both an individual's intention to search for alternative employment as well as the intention to leave the current job. Consider the impact of the unemployment rate on CF attrition - in times of high unemployment when alternative employment is scarce, voluntary attrition from the CF has declined and, conversely, in times of lower unemployment, CF attrition has been higher.

179. There are many aspects involved in the process of leaving. A critical part is understanding how the individual has prepared for the transition. It is also important to know the individual's post-release goal. Without this information, little interpretation can be made of the reasons provided for release (Lyon, 1987). For example, if the individual's goal was to go back to school, there should be a close relationship between their reasons for leaving (e.g. "I can't get the MOC I want", there is no work challenge, and "I am going back to school") and the nature of the preparation for the transition (e.g. applied for trades training or second career planning) and finally their immediate intentions (e.g. going back to school). Unexplainable differences between these steps would indicate that the questionnaire is not capturing the individual's true attrition decision process.

180. The CFAIQ contains six sections which provide important information about why servicemembers voluntarily leave the CF:

a. Reasons for Leaving, which measures the specific individual, organizational and extra-organizational factors which contribute to the leave decision, particularly those related to postings, the nature of the work, advancement opportunities, pay benefits, CF lifestyle, and trade/classification recognition;

b. CF/Civilian Comparison, which provides information on three important questions: whether life in the CF is perceived to be favourable or unfavourable in comparison to civilian life; which aspects of CF life are critically different from civilian life; and whether the leaver's views of

military and civilian life are consistent with their reasons for requesting release;

c. Attitudes Toward Current MOC, which examines three aspects of the individual's overall satisfaction with their MOC: a retrospective measure of the individual's satisfaction with the decision to initially accept the MOC; an indication of whether the service-member would recommend that MOC to others; and an overall measure of satisfaction toward the MOC;

d. Attitudes Toward the CF, which is similar to the section above but also provides a basis for determining whether it is the individual's MOC or the CF as a whole that is the potential source of employment dissatisfaction;

e. Preparation for Transition, which provides information about the individual's level of preparedness for civilian life by looking at immediate and specific release intentions, intentions to pursue academic upgrading or retraining, and job search activities; and

f. Biographical Information, which collects information that will categorize respondents by important individual, organizational and extra-organizational characteristics, such as gender, MOC, marital status (Lyon, 1987).

181. With the introduction of women into the hard sea MOCs in the late 1980's, Maritime Command had concerns that female sailors may have higher rates of attrition, and are leaving for different reasons than their male counterparts. In the analysis of attrition rates, it has been confirmed that women in the hard sea MOCs are leaving at greater rates than men. In a CFPARU study which examined the gender differences in release reasons of those who left the hard sea MOCs between September 1987 and December 1992, it was found that, with the exception of men indicating greater interest in finding a civilian job with more responsibility, men and women did not differ significantly in their reasons for leaving (Parker et al, 1993). However, the patterns of reasons for release differed, with men tending to be more concerned with work/job issues and women with social/familial issues.

182. The Navy has recently tasked DHRRE[1] to further examine the factors involved in men's and women's decisions to leave the hard sea MOCs. Interviews will be conducted with members who have taken either a release or an occupational transfer from the hard sea MOCs to examine possible institutional barriers (VISION 2010, 1998). Potential solutions will also be explored (i.e. what, if any, reasonable actions could have altered the departure decision).

183. In an effort to analyze the reasons for women leaving the CF as a whole and to determine if there are differences among the MOC groups, a study was begun in 1998 of CFAIQ responses since 1989. Unfortunately, this study was not completed as the analyst

himself left the CF. Preliminary results revealed that the top five reasons for leaving the CF differed little between men and women. Competence of their supervisor, stress, their supervisor lacking interest in subordinates, and no re-engagement were four of the top five reasons given by both men and women. The fifth reason differed as men wanted the better security of a civilian job but women felt that their work had not been evaluated fairly.

184. Major dissatisfiers about the CF were also similarly ranked by men and women, with career management, promotions, supervisors and performance evaluations given as the top four items for both men and women. It is interesting to note that, in this analysis, pay was ranked 8th for men and 16th for women. Although they are not major dissatisfiers, men are significantly more dissatisfied than women by the CF lifestyle, hours of work, fringe benefits and pay. On the other hand, women are more dissatisfied by their last job position, work challenge, postings, variety of work, training, level of responsibility and satisfaction with the current MOC.

185. In analyzing the perceived benefits of employment in the civilian world, establishment of roots is predominant for both men and women. The second item is of most interest - men felt that the civilian world would allow them more time spent at home, while women felt that they would have more freedom of speech. It would appear that in comparing their military lives with the civilian world, men want to have a more recognized family role while women want a more professional and community role.

186. Further analysis of the inter-connectivity of these factors has yet to be done. There is also to be a comparison done between MOC groups to see if the type of MOC individuals were in had a contributing influence on the decision to leave.

Organizational Environment and Turnover

187. A qualitative approach was used to explore the relationship between organizational environment and exit among women who left the CF (Davis, 1994). The analysis, which was based on interviews with 23 women who had served between 10 and 20 years in the CF, suggests that although organizational policies and regulations are evolving in attempts to integrate women, the experience of women as 'women within a male-dominated organization' contribute significantly to the attrition of women from that environment.

188. As women have entered the CF, they have entered with the knowledge that it is a 'man's world' and that they will have to adapt accordingly (Davis, 1994). Women must cope simultaneously with symbols and behaviours which perpetuate and maintain male ideology while developing identities as women which satisfy the organizational culture. The male identity of the organization is strongly evident through sexualized behaviours and norms, such as male attitudes of paternalism, sexist male talk, joking and innuendo, and sexual harassment, in the day to day work environment. In addition, socially constructed views of how women and men should behave in both social/sexual and work capacities form an important aspect of women's work experience. Finally, social and

biological differences related to childbearing and childrearing are translated into organizational norms and expectations, further shaping women's experience and organizational perceptions of their experience.

189. While many women in the study were quick to describe their experience as a member of the CF as very positive overall, they also described experiences which challenged their control over how they were perceived within the workplace, and the organization as a whole (Davis, 1994). Those who had not experienced overt discrimination or harassment believed that the fact that they were women made a difference in how they were perceived as professionals by their superiors, co-workers and subordinates. However, women often stayed for extended periods of time since the reasons for staying outweighed the reasons for leaving. Membership in the CF, in spite of some of the negative aspects for women, offers many benefits. Leaving meant that the women must forfeit financial rewards, opportunities for training and advancement, networks of friends and colleagues, and the pride that they felt in a job well-done and service to their country.

190. While there were exceptions, the women in the Davis study, overwhelmingly, chose to leave the CF for gender-specific reasons which reflected quality of life issues - both in terms of family responsibility and personal well-being. Virtually all of the women made distinctions between their satisfaction with the work itself and the organizational processes that they encountered. The circumstances which affected the women's decisions to leave were frequently linked to the organizational environment: lack of supervisor and administrative support, often exacerbated by supervisor discrimination and harassment; cumulative stresses which resulted from combinations of discrimination based upon gender, maternity, family status, and language; and, lack of control over, and perceptions of commitment to, career. The women in the Davis study did not leave the organization as a result of a discriminating environment or a harassing situation that could be resolved. Release did not become an option for these women until they reached a point in which the discriminating or harassing situation had been ongoing for a considerable amount of time, and they became aware that they were powerless to effect positive change to their situation.

191. The women who were interviewed frequently referred to the nature of leadership as a significant influence on the quality of their experience in the CF; that is, whether they considered their experience to be negative or positive, the nature of supervision and leadership was held responsible (Davis, 1994). Although some of the women indicated that they left for reasons largely related to their personal goals rather than deterrents within the CF, supervision often provided further motivation for release when decisions were pending.

192. While stress is an aspect of work that every employee must deal with at one time or another, the women in the Davis study frequently experienced situations which were creating considerable stress as a result of the continuous exposure to an unpleasant environment or harassment, and multiple sources of stress which might be affecting them at the same time. In addition, when women found that they were isolated with the

problem within their workplace with no social or administrative support, the situation was exacerbated. The continued exposure to the poisoned environment, in addition to the knowledge that there was no way to escape, frequently escalated the stress which these women were experiencing.

193. The significance of these women's experiences lies in the various sources of stress with which they must cope (Davis, 1994). Women are participating on a daily basis in an environment in which they are the minority gender. This means managing their image as a woman as well as performing at a level that will be perceived as satisfactory to their supervisors. This often means working a bit harder than their male counterparts. When they are additionally subjected to a 'poisoned' work environment through continuous discrimination, they are dealing with an additional source of stress. The end result is that even though the precipitating circumstances under which a woman left may not have been gender-specific, by virtue of her gender she has dealt with continuous sources of stress in the work environment. Women, are more likely to be exposed to more stress, more often, simply because they are women. When the stress is continuous enough, and there is no hope that the work situation will become acceptable, release becomes the only viable option for some women.

194. Workplace discrimination is seldom experienced in isolation from harassment, just as it is often not a personal issue between an initiator and a receiver (Davis, 1994). Workplace harassment and discrimination based on gender and gender roles is a workplace issue. The effects permeate the workplace, affecting morale and stress levels, and therefore worker productivity. If gender discrimination and harassment are ignored and denied, larger workplace problems are likely to also be ignored. Women frequently bear a greater amount of workplace inequity because of the dominant position of difference that their gender status represents in the organization. It is not just a question of equitable treatment for women, but equitable and quality treatment which allows all workplace members to realize their full potential.

195. The current organization of military service requires that every member be available on a full-time basis, and maintain a lifestyle which offers maximum flexibility to the operational demands of the organization (Davis, 1994). To this end, family interests are accommodated when it is considered in the best interest of the organization. While the existence of family is acknowledged, the CF first and foremost demands total commitment from each of its members. The women who left the CF for 'family' related reasons identified family stability and dual career issues which compromised not only the quality of their family life, but their ability to continue to offer the total commitment that the organization demanded. Without exception, the servicewomen in the Davis study who left the CF for family reasons had children or were expecting a child in the near future. These women frequently expressed the belief that the organization accepts minimal responsibility for addressing family issues and that once a woman has children, her commitment to her job is automatically questioned. Women are disproportionately held responsible for family responsibilities, and are, therefore, put into a position in which they have to prove their commitment to work. The assumption is that men have a

spouse to take care of family interests so that their commitment to work is less likely to be questioned.

196. Overall, the women interviewed in the Davis study described an overwhelming lack of control over their career development, including what type of work they would do, where and when. This phenomenon is not necessarily gender-specific, but a general characteristic of the 'career-management' system used in the CF. Equality, in the organizational sense, is interpreted as same treatment for all, regardless of gender or family status. Members who request 'compassionate' status due to extenuating personal circumstances, forfeit career training and advancement until the problem is resolved and they are once again available for employment anytime, anywhere. The assumption is that if members are not ready, willing and able to fulfill all organizational commitments without question, their personal interests stand in opposition to the organization and their work. The organizational emphasis on career progression which is contingent upon full-time, itinerant, and continuous service, then presents problems which are unique to many women with family responsibilities. Rather than accommodate those who are forced to choose family obligations over their career, the organization frequently adopts positions of inflexibility which directly and/or indirectly punish women.

Summary

197. Retention of women in the CF, particularly in the more non-traditional occupations, is a critical factor in achieving full gender integration. As the CF approaches the 1999 deadline of the Canadian Human Rights Tribunal, it should be of some concern that women are leaving the CF at a generally higher rate than men. If current efforts to increase the recruitment of women are to have the desired effect of raising female representation levels, they must be accompanied by actions to identify and address the causes of higher female attrition. Research has been sketchy as to why women are leaving the CF, but preliminary results indicate that men and women are leaving for similar reasons. Further research has to be undertaken in this area. It has been suggested that although CF policies and regulations are evolving in attempts to integrate women, the experience of women as 'women within a male-dominated organization' contribute significantly to the attrition of women from the CF.

X - ATTITUDES TOWARDS GENDER INTEGRATION

Pre-Tribunal Attitudes

198. CFPARU conducted a study in the mid-1980's of female service-members' willingness to serve in new environments and roles, if a policy decision was made to expand their employment to such areas (Stewart et al, 1986a). It was found, at that time, that a significantly higher percentage of women than men would take their release if posted to a surface ship, submarine or operational land unit. However, the discrepancy was not surprising given the women's lack of experience in these environments and the fact that women, for the first time, would be entering previously all-male, operational combat units. In addition, these were purely hypothetical questions since a formal CF policy decision concerning the placement of women in combat roles and environments had not been made yet. There was also a significant difference found between men's and women's judgements of women's obligations to serve: 90% of men and 75% of women agreed that servicewomen should perform the same tasks and duties as men within a posting and should be liable for the same postings as men. Several men and women viewed the issue as one of "Equal pay for equal work".

199. It was recommended in this study that should it be decided to employ women in operational sea and land combat units, efforts should be made to address those factors which servicewomen indicated were of specific concern to them and would cause them to leave. For example, providing women with realistic information on postings to sea or land operational units, childcare assistance when away on duty, discouraging servicemen's negative reactions to working with women, proper selection and training to ensure that women can perform the tasks assigned them in the new environments and roles, and ensuring viable career opportunities and progression for women who are willing to serve in all elements, were to be explored in further detail.

200. At the same time, there was another study conducted by CFPARU examining the impact of employing female aircrew in operational squadrons assigned combat missions (Stewart et al, 1986b). In general, male aircrew were almost equally divided in their willingness to work for, work with, or supervise female aircrew. It was found that male aircrew were somewhat more positive than negative in their assessments of women's potential as air navigators and airborne electronic sensor operators, however, they were less inclined to believe that female aircrew would be effective as pilots or flight engineers. Airborne electronic sensor operators demonstrated the greatest pessimism of all the aircrew.

Post-Tribunal Attitudes

201. After the Canadian Human Rights Tribunal decision in 1989, the attitudes towards full gender integration varied across the CF (MABWCF, 1991). The MABWCF found that the Navy typically had a "let's get on with it" approach to gender integration after the 1989 Tribunal decision. It was reported in 1991 that the Navy was ahead of its own

initial expectations concerning the speed of integration and appeared to be actively looking for solutions to present or future problems associated with the process. The Army, on the other hand, had varying attitudes, ranging from acceptance, to not resisting but also not preparing for gender integration, to outward hostility. There was an overall "no women, no problem" attitude encountered at some locations, which failed to recognize the changed circumstances, both legal and social, of the CF. It was noted by the MABWCF at the time that resistance and refusal to view integration of women in a positive manner would, predictably, lead to a self-fulfilling prophecy of failure. Unless attitudes changed, women would find it extremely difficult to succeed in the Army. The MABWCF also noted that although there was room for improvement in the attitudes in some non-traditional areas of the Air Force, the acceptance of women and the on-job social climate had definitely changed for the better over the last few years.

Baseline Diversity Survey

202. In order to monitor change towards increased acceptance of diversity and equity in the CF, a baseline survey of Regular Force members was carried out in 1996. The survey sought respondents' attitudes towards diversity and equity, and towards ethnic groups, their own work morale, and their perceptions of the climate for equity in the CF (Berry, 1997). Results showed that 30.3% of female respondents versus 15.8% of male respondents had recently experienced discrimination, with the discrimination experienced by women being predominantly based on gender and the predominant basis of discrimination for men being language. Perhaps not surprisingly, work morale (one's sense of effectiveness, commitment and satisfaction) was generally lower for women than for men. Women were generally more positive than men with respect to multiculturalism, tolerance and equity in the CF, and they tended to exhibit less authoritarian attitudes. Differences across environments were not numerous, but they did suggest that Army personnel are the least tolerant of diversity and equity and are more authoritarian.

1997 Mixed Gender Opinion Questionnaire

203. PRT developed a mixed gender opinion questionnaire in 1997 to measure the level of acceptance of gender integration within the CF as the military approaches its ten year deadline to fully gender integrate by 1999. Overall, the survey results indicated that members of the CF support the employment of women in all environments and roles, as well as CF policies and training that have been put in place to support gender integration (Davis, 1998b). Women are more likely than men to support the employment of women in all environments and roles and gender integration initiatives, as well as perceive that they have to work harder than men to receive the same career recognition and opportunities. Women also are more likely than men to feel that gender awareness training improves working relationships in mixed gender units. Men, on the other hand, are more likely than women to agree that women get away with breaking rules that men would be punished for and that women frequently claim harassment rather than accept responsibility for the inability to do the job.

204. Analysis by environment indicates that the Air Force is more likely to express support for the employment of women in all environments and roles than the Army or the Navy, reflecting the on-going challenge that the CF faces in the integration of women and men into operational/deployable units (Davis, 1998b). The overall similarity in responses between those with and without mixed gender operational experience suggests that more research is needed to better understand the impact of social contact and associated factors such as leadership, proportion of women in the environment, etc. The responses to the survey did not support the contact hypothesis which asserts that bringing groups together may decrease prejudice and feelings of hostility, which in turn could lead to the development of more favourable attitudes.

Attitudes of the Army

205. The Davis study on the retention of women in the combat arms also addressed the issue of attitudes toward the employment of women in all environments and roles (Davis, 1997). Among men and women, there is a perception that the CF is asking more and more of its people with little or no reward, and this is compounded by negative press and the absence of any indications of appreciation on the part of the Canadian public. Some participants in the Davis study (mostly men) expressed the belief that morale and other general problems facing the CF should be fixed before women are added to the combat arms equation. Women also agreed that much needs to be addressed to ensure a positive training and employment environment in the combat arms for men and women; however, men are more likely to perceive women as 'another problem' to be dealt with, rather than a resource that needs to be developed.

Unit Climate Surveys

206. A unit climate survey has been developed for the Army, which will monitor the attitudes of men and women in the Army over time and determine the progress of the gender integration initiative (DLP, 1998). The Army's Unit Climate Survey is a combination of four established instruments: the Unit Climate Profile (morale, cohesion, confidence in leadership); the Military Equal Opportunity Climate Survey (attitudes about harassment, discrimination and equal opportunity issues); the Multicultural Attitude Survey; and the Mixed-Gender Opinion Questionnaire. The Air Force and the Navy are also in the process of developing unit climate surveys to monitor the attitudes of their members toward equal opportunity and multiculturalism.

Summary

207. There remain problems with the attitudes of service-members towards full gender integration. Overall, members of the CF support the employment of women in all environments and roles, as well as CF policies and training that have been put in place to support gender integration; however, men are less likely than women to support these ideas. Women are more likely to have been discriminated against based on their gender, and they generally have a lower work morale than men. The Army is the least supportive of full gender integration, equity and multiculturalism; and men in the combat arms are

more likely to perceive women as 'another problem' to be dealt with, rather than a resource that needs to be developed. Plans to monitor attitudes towards the full employment of women in the CF have been developed by each environment.

XI - HARASSMENT

1992 Harassment Survey

208. A CF Administrative Order (CFAO 19-39) on personal harassment was promulgated in 1988. The order stated that "No member of the CF shall subject any other member or any other person with whom the member works to any type of personal harassment including sexual harassment". After the promulgation of this administrative order, CFPARU was tasked to conduct a survey to examine the occurrence of harassment in the CF and to provide an indication of the effectiveness of the CF personal harassment policy (Hansen, 1993). Three types of harassment were studied: personal harassment (excluding sexual), sexual harassment, and abuse of authority. Personal harassment is the unsolicited behaviour by an individual that is directed at or is offensive to another individual; that is based on personal characteristics including, for example, race, religion, sex, physical characteristics, or mannerisms; and that a reasonable person ought to have known would be unwelcome. Sexual harassment is a type of personal harassment that has a sexual purpose or is of a sexual nature including, but not limited to, touching, leering, lascivious remarks and the display of pornographic material. Abuse of authority is to undermine, sabotage, or otherwise interfere with the career of another individual including but not limited to, intimidation, threats, blackmail, coercion, or unfairness in the distribution of work assignments, in the provision of training or promotional opportunities, in the completion of performance evaluations, or in the provision of references.

209. The Hansen study indicated that although the majority of men and women were aware of the existence of the CF personal harassment policy, less than half of the respondents had read the policy, and fewer had received harassment awareness training at the time of the survey. Respondents rated the CF personal harassment policy as moderately effective in reducing harassment. Those who indicated knowledge of the harassment policy were asked if they were aware of specific interventions to reduce harassment and their evaluation of the effectiveness of these actions. The results indicated only a moderate to low level of awareness of harassment interventions. Respondents that were aware of the interventions rated them as moderately effective.

210. The results of the harassment survey also indicated that 26.2% of the female respondents and 2.0% of the male respondents believed that they had been subjected to sexual harassment; 32.6% of the female and 19.4% of the male respondents believed that they had been subjected to personal harassment (excluding sexual); and 31.5% of the female and 28.9% of the male respondents believed they had been the subject of abuse of authority while performing CF duties during the 12 months prior to the survey (Hansen, 1993). These results suggest that all three forms of harassment are similarly prevalent for women, while abuse of authority and personal harassment (excluding sexual) are the most prevalent forms of harassment for men.

211. According to the 1992 harassment survey, the most frequent types of sexual harassment for women were: unsolicited and offensive sexual teasing, jokes, remarks, or questions; sexual talk or behaviour that created an offensive, hostile or intimidating environment; and unsolicited and offensive sexually suggestive looks, gestures or body language (Hansen, 1993). The most frequent types of sexual harassment for men were unsolicited and offensive sexual teasing, jokes, remarks, or questions; unsolicited and offensive touching, leaning over, pinching or brushing against of a deliberate sexual nature; and sexual talk or behaviour that created an offensive, hostile or intimidating environment. The most frequently perceived bases of personal harassment (excluding sexual) were gender, physical characteristics and mannerisms for women, and physical characteristics, national, regional or ethnic origins, and mannerisms for men. In fact, 82.9% of women who believed that they had experienced personal harassment (excluding sexual) felt that their gender was some or all of the basis for this harassment. This suggests that more work is required to fully integrate and ensure acceptance of women in non-traditional roles within the CF. The most frequent forms of abuse of authority for both men and women were: unfairness in the evaluation of their performance; unfairness in the receipt of work assignments; and intimidation.

212. The most common ways of responding to harassment for both men and women were to: ignore the behaviour; avoid the person; tell their supervisors; and ask the person to stop (Hansen, 1993). Formal action against the harasser was initiated by only 22.5% of the female respondents and 17.8% of the male respondents. The main reasons that respondents who had been harassed did not take formal action were: thought it would make the work situation unpleasant; did not think anything would be done; thought they would be labelled a trouble maker; thought it would be held against them; and took care of the problem themselves. Of those who did report an harassment incident to their supervisor, 68.7% of women and 72.2% of men were either not satisfied at all or were only slightly satisfied.

213. As a result of harassment, 25.9% of the female respondents and 27.5% of the male respondents to the survey had requested a posting or considered leaving the CF (Hansen, 1993). With respect to the number of days away from work, 14.3% of the women and 14.2% of the men reported that they were absent from work three or more days because of a harassment experience. Similar results were reported by those who had either experienced sexual harassment or personal harassment (excluding sexual). However, both the men and women who experienced abuse of authority reported more harassment-related absenteeism and higher levels of considering a transfer or release than those who had experienced other forms of harassment.

214. The CF harassment policy has been recently amended to include hazing and now outlines several informal actions that a complainant may wish to pursue if they believe that they have been harassed. As well, the current policy more clearly identifies the responsibilities of leadership to address harassment when they become aware that it has, or continues, to occur in their workplace. To examine the effectiveness of these changes and to facilitate a comparison with the 1992 data, the harassment survey was administered once again in 1998, and final results will be forthcoming in 1999.

215. The Air Force did a comparative analysis of harassment incidences in 1992 and 1995 to determine the effectiveness of its Harassment Elimination Programme (HELP), which it implemented shortly after the 1992 CF Harassment Survey was administered (Thompson, 1995). The results of the study indicated that since the implementation of the harassment policy and HELP, the incidence of harassment in Air Command had decreased and the knowledge of harassment policies and procedures had increased. It was recommended in the study that HELP continue and that attention be given to address abuse of authority and gender integration through future leadership and staff training.

Annual Harassment Report (FY 96/97)

216. A total of 144 formal harassment complaints were made by members of the CF in the 1996/97 fiscal year (FY), which was up slightly from the year before when there were 127 formal harassment complaints by military members (DPCR, 1998). The increase in complaints is not surprising, as more people become aware through the Standard for Harassment and Racism Prevention (SHARP) training that behaviours perceived to be harassing in nature are not acceptable. It is anticipated over time that greater awareness will translate into the prevention of harassing behaviour and fewer complaints.

217. Of the 144 military complaints in FY 96/97, 37 were founded, 17 were resolved through mediation, 27 were pending, 49 were unfounded, and four were withdrawn (DPCR, 1998). The largest number of military complaints was made by members of the Army (56). Abuse of authority was the predominant reason for the military complaints (68). In a breakdown by gender, abuse of authority was actually the predominant type of complaint for men, whereas personal harassment was the predominant complaint for women. Sexual harassment accounted for 23 of the complaints made by military members.

218. According to the Annual Harassment Report, 51.0% of those military members laying formal harassment complaints in FY 96/97 were women. This is a cause of concern since women only account for 10.8% of the Regular Force. Military complaints were predominantly made by those in the junior ranks (85.0%) against other military members (94.9%), and the majority of respondents were men (83.0%). Supervisors were the predominant type of respondent (45.5%); instructors accounted for only 5.7% of respondents. Co-workers and others, such as senior leaders not in direct supervisory roles, accounted for the other half of the respondents.

219. The resolution of any founded complaint can involve more than one type of corrective action. Of the 37 founded military complaints in FY 1996/97: 25 resulted in administrative action, eight in awareness training, six in apology, four in disciplinary action and three in permanent separation (DPCR, 1998).

Maclean's Magazine

220. In the May 25, 1998 issue of Maclean's Magazine, there was an expose of sexual assault in the Canadian military. The magazine continued to carry the story over a period of three weeks, during which time 31 cases of alleged sexual misconduct were brought forth. The CF National Investigation Service (CFNIS) has since reviewed all of them. Of the 31 cases, four were still being investigated as of December 1998; one was reopened; 11 were considered closed because the victim did not want to pursue the matter or could not be identified; three resulted in no charges being laid; 11 had already been investigated and brought to justice; and one led to the CFNIS laying charges.

CDS' Response: 1-800 Hotline

221. It was acknowledged by the Chief of Defence Staff (CDS) in May 1998 that the media articles at the time did indicate that a number of sexual assault and harassment cases had occurred that were not dealt with in an appropriate manner (CANFORGEN 053/98). The CDS was also concerned that potential complainants might be reluctant to raise issues within the chain of command because they were not convinced that their complaint would be handled with respect and dignity and in an appropriate manner. He reminded all CF personnel that it was their personal and professional responsibility to be vigilant and to take necessary action when inappropriate behaviour was observed. Turning a blind eye and hoping that the problem would go away was not an acceptable approach and individuals at all levels would be held accountable for their actions. The CDS firmly stated that sexual assault and harassment are not acceptable behaviours in the CF.

222. As an interim measure until the CF's Ombudsman office is functioning, a complaint line was set up to respond to sexual assault and sexual harassment complaints. Between 1 June and 15 November 1998, 279 complaints were reported to the 1-800 number (not including calls for information or callbacks). Callers have been primarily active or retired Regular Force members. Personal harassment and abuse of authority have accounted for the majority of the complaints. A higher than expected number of these cases since 1995 have been reported, which may be a reflection of a more open CF, where there are now means to report problems without going through the chain of command. Of the sexual harassment and sexual assault cases reported, fewer than expected cases since 1995 have been reported. This might be a result of the improved awareness among CF members from the SHARP training.

SHARP Training

223. Due to court and Human Rights Tribunal decisions against the Department of National Defence (DND), it was mandated that everyone, both military and civilian, in the Department be sensitized to harassment and racism issues. As a result, the SHARP training package was developed. With the exception of the Cadet Instructor Cadre (CIC), which requires additional time to complete their training due to budget constraints and the requirement for a self-study package, the vast majority of employees within DND

shall be trained by the end of December 1998 (Chapin, 1998). A key element of the SHARP program is that members of DND will have the principles of SHARP taught to them when entering DND and then reinforced throughout their careers. The basic training courses for officers and NCMs have SHARP training embedded in their curriculum; and the requirement for SHARP training has been formalized in the general specifications for officers and NCMs, which will be reflected in all CF professional development courses, such as the Junior Leader's Course, the Senior Leader's Course and the Management Development Courses.

Impact of Gender Harassment/Discrimination

224. Women with years of experience in the CF are unanimous in stating that the situation regarding gender harassment and discrimination has improved markedly over the years (MABGICF, 1993). Nevertheless, they acknowledge that there are still individuals who make it known that women are not wanted, and harassment is still considered a potentially serious threat to a career. Gender harassment or discrimination may take numerous forms, from mild joking to blatant insults to thoughtless exclusion from important tasks due to a failure to re-examine essential criteria. A considerable amount of work has been done at the Command level to eliminate these behaviours, but they still persist.

225. Discrimination is a deeply rooted, self-reinforcing problem which can not be solved by one-shot education or indoctrination programmes (MABGICF, 1993). The attitudes underlying gender harassment are grounded in obvious gender differences and lifelong socialization. They form a part of the latent stereotypes shared by both men and women in society. Basic training instructors have noted that many male recruits enter the CF with these attitudes fully formed and that vigilance is required to prevent peer harassment from occurring within mixed gender platoons. They can suppress the behaviour of these individuals, but the basic prejudice remains. It takes very little to reinforce such stereotypes and continuous control of discriminatory behaviour is necessary.

226. A second group of individuals, that pose an even more difficult problem, were also identified by the MABGICF. This group are experienced people who cannot or will not accept the fact that women are an integral part of the CF. Many are still employed in single gender locations and their stereotypes are reinforced everyday. The problems arise when women are posted to their unit or they are posted to mixed gender units. These individuals should be properly prepared for change through education and a clear statement of their liability if they discriminate. Behavioural norms that clearly contribute to a poisoned atmosphere within a unit can easily develop if prejudiced individuals are left on their own to adapt to mixed gender service. The fact that many individuals still speak out publicly against women in the CF and get away with it is a clear indication that current methods of reaching these individuals are not effective. Renewed emphasis must be given to eliminating discriminatory behaviour.

Summary

227. Harassment and gender discrimination persist in the military, despite efforts to eradicate it. A number of initiatives in response to the current concerns with respect to sexual harassment and sexual assault are being pursued, and a harassment policy review intended to review and consolidate all aspects of policy and practice is being undertaken. The impact of the SHARP program has yet to be determined, particularly in relation to the results of a recent harassment survey expected to be released in early 1999. Harassment on the basis of gender hinders the efforts to fully integrate women in the CF.

XII - PHYSICAL FITNESS STANDARDS

Definition of Physical Fitness

228. The ability of women to meet the physical standards required by the CF has undergone much scrutiny, particularly by the Army. Many of the jobs assigned to military personnel can be very physically demanding and result in injury. The CF defines fitness as 'the physical ability and energy to accomplish assigned tasks, to meet unforeseen emergencies with vigour and alertness... the ability to effectively withstand stress and persevere under difficult operational circumstances' (Lee et al, 1995). Therefore, it is crucial that men and women have the physical capacity to fulfil the requirements of their jobs. It is generally recognized, however, that because of differing physiological profiles, men and women may perform the same task differently. For example, for an identical squat lifting task, women generally expend more energy per minute per kilogram of body weight than men. The specific physiological factors responsible for these gender differences are not known, but it appears that the anthropometric build of women, such as wider pelvis, shorter body size, and lower centre of gravity, may affect their efficiency when compared to the performances of men.

Physical Fitness Predictors

229. There has been much discussion about lower physical standards for women than for men. In the late 1980's, five common military tasks were approved by senior leadership as being representative of the physical requirements of all CF members. These tasks include: stretcher carry, sea evacuation, low/high crawl, entrenchment dig, and sand bag carry. Men and women in the CF have identical pass/fail criteria for these tasks. Recognizing that testing the ability to do these tasks requires two days of testing with complicated equipment and qualified tests, research was conducted to develop predictor standards which would only take 20 minutes to administer (the CF EXPRES test). From the fitness profiles of CF personnel able to pass the five common task criteria, predictor standards were established for men and women. However, because of the physiological differences between men and women, women who met the minimum standard for the five common tasks displayed different performance profiles than the men who met the minimum standard for the five common tasks when the predictive test was used. This does not mean that women are less fit than men.

Occupational Physical Selection Standards

230. The requirement for occupation-specific physical selection standards was also studied by the CF in the late 1980's. However, difficulties encountered in validating the test protocol created to measure physical strength and the requirement to complete an additional three phases of the project before a CF-wide application of the occupational physical selection standards (OPSS) could be confidently introduced, resulted in the indefinite postponement of OPSS (Park, 1996a). The importance of establishing bona fide physical requirements that ensure that personnel who qualify for an MOC have

demonstrated an ability to perform all essential functions was noted by the MABWCF (MABWCF, 1992). These requirements would, in turn, help dispel doubts and myths concerning the capabilities of women in many MOCs with operational taskings. Furthermore, carefully developed physical standards for critical tasks constitute valid or bona fide job standards that should be legally defensible.

Summary

231. Physical fitness standards remain a point of discussion. Many CF members think that because the predictive standards of the CF EXPRES test are lower for women, women are less fit than men. This is not true - women are required to meet the same pass/fail criteria for the five common military tasks. However, because of physiological differences between men and women, the predictive standards are different. The requirement for occupation-specific physical standards has been identified numerous times over the years, but the cost of completing the OPSS project is prohibitively expensive and so it has been indefinitely postponed.

XIII - CRITICAL MASS CONCEPT

Theory of Critical Mass

232. Critical mass is a concept that has been discussed over the years since the Tribunal decision ordered the CF to open all areas of employment, with the exception of submarine service, to women. However, it would appear that the positive benefits of a "critical mass" have not been established yet and that intergroup dynamics are more complex than a simple numerical influence or solution (Park, 1995). A reliance on numbers without considering other, seemingly more influential factors involved in intergroup relations could be very inappropriate. It should be noted that this did not stop the Supreme Court of Canada, which ordered Canadian National Railways to comply with a Canadian Human Rights Tribunal decision that it had won an earlier appeal on, to hire at least one woman for every four non-traditional positions filled until the objective of 13% was achieved. The Supreme Court felt that a critical mass of women would have the beneficial effects of eliminating women's tokenism, that women would not so easily be placed on the periphery of management concern and a significant chance for continuing self-correction of the system would occur. The target of 13% was based on the proportion of women in similar jobs across the country at the time.

CHRC Measurement

233. In a letter to the CF written in November 1995, the CHRC recognized that the 1989 Human Rights Tribunal did not define full integration, but that one indicator of progress toward integration was the presence of a critical mass of women in each combat occupational group, citing the Supreme Court decision discussed above (CHRC, 1995). For discussion purposes, the CHRC proposed an arbitrary requirement for the CF to have at least 10 women and at least 2% of positions occupied by women as the absolute minimum necessary in each occupational category. The letter concluded that based on the numbers of women in the CF at the time, the CF was not progressing toward full integration at a satisfactory pace. This measurement has since been withdrawn by the CHRC because it was purely arbitrary. The Canadian Human Rights Tribunal decision concerning Canadian National Railways imposed quotas based on the representation rates of women in similar occupations across the country at the time, but the CHRC's measurement had no comparable basis.

Impact of Critical Mass in the Combat Arms

234. Davis' study on the retention of women in the combat arms revealed that the consensus among men and women is that significant numbers of women should be trained and employed together for reasons varying from mutual support to fewer problems for leaders (for example, the perception that several men would be 'in competition' for one woman, or the belief that if they have to go the extra effort to accommodate women there should be more than one woman) (Davis, 1997). Women in the combat arms believe that they would benefit from an environment that has more

qualified women, as long as women are not trained and employed together at the expense of individual career choices and development.

235. It is important to note that women who were alone on combat arms training and women who were with one or more women in the training environment had different perceptions of what it meant to be a woman in the combat arms (Davis et al, 1998). While women who were alone believed, for example, that at least one other woman would improve the experience of being a woman in the combat arms, those who were with a group of women put less emphasis on the presence of other women. Women frequently described situations in which women competed among themselves, rather than supported one another. This raises the question of critical mass, and how many women or what proportion of women will create a situation which actually contributes to the improved success and retention rate of women. Critical mass alone will not increase the retention rate of women in the combat arms, unless that critical mass is large enough to impact the combat arms environment as a whole.

Summary

236. The positive benefits of a critical mass have not been established in the research literature. Intergroup dynamics are more complex than a simple numerical influence or solution, so it is unknown how many women or what proportion of women will create a situation which actually contributes to the improved success and retention rate of women in the CF.

XIV - INTEGRATION THEORY

Definition of Integration

237. According to the Webster Dictionary, to integrate is to remove legal and social barriers imposing segregation upon two or more groups. An acculturation framework can also be used to define integration, using two questions: is it considered to be of value to maintain cultural identity and characteristics and is it considered to be of value to maintain relationships with other groups (Park, 1996a). If cultural identity and characteristics are important, then either integration or separation will occur. Integration will occur if it is also considered to be of value to maintain relationships with other groups; separation will occur if it is not. If cultural identity and characteristics are not considered important by the organization, then either assimilation or marginalization will occur. Assimilation will occur if it is also important to maintain relationships with other groups; marginalization will occur if it is not. Because it is imperative in the CF to maintain relationships with other groups, women will either be integrated or assimilated, depending on whether the CF values the cultural identity and characteristics of women.

Impact of Integration on Operational Effectiveness

238. As the CF attempted to integrate women into more areas of non-traditional employment in the late 1980's. a review was conducted of literature pertaining to gender integration (Lamerson, 1987). It was found that acceptance of servicewomen by servicemen is a necessary requirement for the successful fulfillment of unit objectives and the maintenance of operational effectiveness. That is, the acceptance of the mixed-gender composition of the unit is considered an important aspect in the development of unit cohesion and morale which in turn is important to operational effectiveness. For an entering group to be successfully integrated into an existent group, it must be recognized as contributing to unit objectives. If integration does not occur, the entering group might be assimilated or segregated, which could compromise operational effectiveness.

Acceptance of Integration

239. It was noted in the literature review that the acceptance of women in non-traditional roles can be detrimentally affected by the attitudes of men (Lamerson, 1987). Not all men will react negatively toward women entering their work group, but those negative reactions that do occur, such as resentment, isolation, hostility, paternalism, sexism, and stereotyping, could prevent women from successfully integrating into their units. The supervisor plays a critical role in the acceptance of women into new units.

240. Creating an accepting atmosphere can be accomplished in three ways, according to the literature search. First, groups should be treated equally. Second, information should be provided to servicemen that explains the rationale for employing women in non-traditional occupations, and that highlights women's capabilities and background knowledge/training. Supervisors should be reminded that leadership is their

responsibility irrespective of gender. Finally, through an education program, women should be prepared for the potential negative reactions of servicemen and for the specific work/social requirements of the unit.

Conceptual Framework for Gender Integration in the CF

241. Although there has been considerable activity by the CF since the 1989 Canadian Human Rights Tribunal to fully gender integrate within ten years, no master implementation plan, definition of gender integration, goal, criterion, standards or evaluation plan has been developed (Park, 1996b). The CF attempted to develop a conceptual framework for gender integration, but unfortunately the work was too theoretical to be of much assistance (Park, 1996b; Park, 1996c; Park, 1997a; Park, 1997b). The need to complete this work has been identified in the final report on the progress made towards full gender integration by the CF, and will be undertaken at a special Defence Diversity Council conference in February 1999 (Vivian, 1999).

Summary

242. Gender integration in the CF relies on the military to value the cultural identity and characteristics of women and to establish effective working relationships between men and women. Acceptance of servicewomen by servicemen is a necessary requirement for the successful fulfillment of unit objectives and the maintenance of operational effectiveness. Creating an accepting atmosphere can be accomplished in a number of ways, including having effective leadership and educating both men and women about integration.

XV - DISCUSSION

243. There are two major phases in achieving equitable participation of a target group within a front-end loaded system such as the CF (Bender et al, 1994a; Bender et al, 1994b). The first is a transitional phase. In this phase, overall participation of the target group is increased primarily through recruitment. The effects of this action are initially felt in the entry-level ranks of the system. Given equal opportunities for career advancement, individuals from the target group will then gradually move through the rank hierarchy. During this time, increased recruitment needs to be maintained until overall participation of the target group meets a desired level. Recruitment of the target group should then be reduced to a level commensurate with its losses so as to maintain the overall participation level. At this stage, there should be an over-representation of the target group in the junior ranks, with an under-representation in the senior ranks. Over time, this imbalance will disappear and equitable participation of the target group will be found throughout the rank hierarchy. The system will then be in the second phase - the steady state condition.

244. In the past, the employment of women in the CF was limited by such restrictions as enrolment in exclusively non-combat roles, recruitment of only single women and the requirement to resign if they became pregnant. However, progressive policy changes over the last 20 years and the opening of all employment areas (with the exception of submarine service) since 1989 have had a positive effect on encouraging women to select a broader career with the CF. Overall female representation rates were higher in 1998 than they were in 1989, but there is still a large discrepancy between female representation rates in the junior and the senior ranks. This indicates that women are still in the first phase of achieving equitable participation within the CF.

245. To properly understand how female participation in the CF has changed since 1989, several factors, such as recruitment, career progression, attrition and attitudes, must be considered. It is imperative to understand how each of these factors has contributed historically to female participation and how these factors may continue to influence participation in the future (Bender et al, 1994a; Bender et al, 1994b). Participation in the junior ranks is directly related to recruitment, while participation in the senior ranks is a reflection of career progression and changes in the rank distributions. Attrition and attitudes play a role throughout the process.

246. Clearly, in a front-end loaded system such as the CF, any increase in the female population must be achieved through recruiting. However, budgetary constraints since 1989, which imposed reductions on the overall size of the CF, resulted in a large drop in the number of enrolments during the early to mid-1990's. To increase female representation rates, the female share of enrolments must be kept at a level above the current female representation rate (Bender et al, 1994a; Bender et al, 1994b). This has been achieved for officers, where the female share of enrolments has been at least double that of the female representation rate since 1989. Consequently, the female representation rate for officers has steadily increased. On the other hand, the female

share of enrolments for NCMs was substantially lower than their female representation rate between 1992 and 1996, resulting in the female representation rate dropping between 1994 and 1997.

247. Once recruited, it is important to ensure that gender differences in terms of attrition be monitored closely or else all gains achieved through recruitment could be lost (Bender et al, 1994a; Bender et al, 1994b). It has been shown that female attrition rates are higher than those of their male counterparts, substantially so for those in the non-traditional employment areas for women. Further investigation is required to determine why men and women are leaving the CF, at what points in their careers they are leaving, and what are the major dissatisfiers with military service. The Bender studies revealed preliminary results that indicated female attrition rates are higher than those for men in the junior ranks, but the reverse trend is observed for the senior ranks. It has been surmised that the trends in the junior ranks could be related to family related responsibilities while the trends in the senior ranks could be related to pension entitlements, but there could be other factors at play which may be revealed through additional analysis.

248. Career progression factors determine the female representation rates at the individual ranks. Although the number of women at the senior ranks for officers and NCMs has increased since 1989, analysis has revealed that women may not be progressing into the senior ranks at rates commensurate with their male colleagues. This is particularly true for the more traditional areas of employment for women, such as the Support MOC group.

249. Full gender integration relies on the CF to value the cultural identity and characteristics of women and to establish effective working relationships between men and women. Acceptance of servicewomen by servicemen is a necessary requirement for the successful fulfillment of unit objectives and the maintenance of operational effectiveness. Creating an accepting atmosphere can be accomplished in a number of ways, including having effective leadership and educating both men and women about integration. Examination of harassment in the CF indicates that more work is required in this area, that women have not been completely accepted, particularly in the combat arms.

250. There is also the issue of critical mass, and how many women or what proportion of women will create a situation which actually contributes to the improved success and retention rate of women. The data suggest that critical mass alone will not increase the retention rate of women in the combat arms, unless that critical mass is large enough to impact the combat arms environment as a whole

251. In recognition of the problems faced by women in the combat arms, the Army has developed a diversity and gender integration program, called "Leadership in a Diverse Army". The purpose of this program is to eliminate the systemic and attitudinal barriers against women, native Canadians and visible minorities. Using the findings from the Davis reports (Davis, 1997; Davis, 1998a; Davis et al, 1998), the Army is trying to

address some of the major problems facing women in the combat arms today, including fitness standards, double standards, the perceptions of quotas, equipment, facilities, harassment, discrimination and stereotyping, fraternization and interpersonal relationships, and monitoring progress. It is clear, however, that the most important factor in creating effective units is effective leadership.

XVI - CONCLUSIONS & RECOMMENDATIONS

252. A 1989 Canadian Human Rights Tribunal ordered the CF to open all areas of employment, with the exception of submarine service, to women within ten years. Although restrictions on the employment of women in the CF were removed almost immediately after the Tribunal decision, the downsizing efforts of the Regular Force have limited significant progress in female representation rates. The numbers of both women and men are currently well below 1989 levels. Despite efforts, particularly in recent years, there are still problems concerning gender integration in the Canadian military. Quantitatively speaking, preliminary results indicate that female applicants are not enrolled at the same rate as male applicants; promotion rates for the senior ranks are not equitable for men and women; and attrition rates are higher for women than for men. Qualitatively speaking, men have less positive attitudes towards gender integration than women and harassment remains an issue.

253. Although a great deal of analysis, both quantitative and qualitative, has been conducted on the issue of gender integration in the CF, it is recommended that further analysis be conducted on some of the problem areas identified in this study:

a. a further examination of disposition data to confirm if men are indeed accepted into the CF at a greater rate than women, and if so, why;

b. an analysis of the impact of the increased recruitment goals for women on female representation rates;

c. a further review of officer selection board results to see if there are any differences in the rate of offers by MOC for men and women;

d. a further examination of matching the aptitude and occupational interests of applicants with occupational attractiveness ratings to improve selection methods;

e. an analysis of training failure rates by gender and MOC type to determine if there are any gender differences;

f. a systems review of the career progression system to determine why women are not being promoted into the senior ranks at the same rate as men in some occupational areas; and

g. the completion of the analysis of why members leave the CF, examining possible differences by gender and MOC.

254. Continued monitoring of recruitment, promotion and attrition data is essential in identifying any new problems that may arise. Attitudinal and harassment surveys should also be administered on a regular basis to capture any significant changes. As well, the

Navy, Army and Air Force all have individual studies underway on issues specifically affecting each of the environments, and the results of these studies should also be considered.

255. The impact of issues related to maternity, parenting and family support on career progression need to be analyzed. In particular, a study needs to be done on the impact of taking maternity/parental leave on PERs, promotions and engagement conversion offers. As well, research needs to be conducted on the impact of operational employment on pregnancy.

256. Finally, it should be remembered that this study does not include an analysis of gender integration in the Primary Reserves. The lack of a reliable, centralized data source makes such analysis virtually impossible at this time. In the future, when a centralized database for the Primary Reserves is developed, this type of analysis should be conducted.

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OCCUPATIONAL GROUPS IN THE CANADIAN FORCES

Background

1. In the gender analyses of the Canadian Forces (CF), the individual military occupations (MOCs) for Regular Force officers and non-commissioned members (NCMs) have been divided into six groups. The groups are listed below with their respective MOCs. It should be noted that there are three "operational" MOC groups and three "support" MOC groups.

2. In addition, selected MOCs are annotated as being "monitored". As part of the Canadian Human Rights Commission (CHRC) audit of gender integration in the CF, female participation in specific MOCs has been tracked. The majority of these MOCs were to be part of the Combat Related Employment of Women (CREW) Trials in the late 1980's because they had been previously closed to women. However, these trials were cancelled by the Canadian Human Rights Tribunal in 1989 when all areas of employment, with the exception of submarine service, were opened to women. Subsequently, the progress of women in these MOCs has been monitored by the CHRC as the CF moves toward the target of full gender integration by 1999.

Combat Arms

3. In the gender analyses of the CF, the Combat Arms MOC group includes four officer MOCs and six NCM MOCs as follows:

a. officer Combat Arms MOCs:
   i. Armoured - ARMD(monitored),
   ii. Artillery - ARTY (monitored),
   iii. Infantry - INF (monitored), and
   iv. Engineers - ENG (monitored); and

b. NCM Combat Arms MOCs:
   i. Crewman - CRMN (monitored),
   ii. Artilleryman Field - ARTYMN FD (monitored),
   iii. Artilleryman Air Defence - ARTYMN AD (monitored),
   iv. Infantryman - INFMN (monitored),
   v. Field Engineer - FD ENGR (monitored), and
   vi. Field Engineer Equipment Operator - FEE OP.

Naval Operational/Technical

4. The Naval Operational/Technical MOC group includes two officer MOCs and 20 NCM MOCs as follows:

a. officer Naval Operational/Technical MOCs:
   i. Maritime Engineering - MARE (monitored), and
   ii. Maritime Surface and Sub-Surface - MARS (monitored); and

b. NCM Naval Operational/Technical MOCs:
   i. Naval Weapons Technician - NW TECH (monitored),
   ii. Boatswain - BOSN (monitored),
   iii. Oceanographic Operator - OCEAN OP,
   iv. Naval Signalman - NAV SIG (monitored),
   v. Naval Acoustics Operator - NAC OP (monitored),
   vi. Naval Radio Operator - NRAD OP (monitored),
   vii. Naval Combat Information Operator - NCI OP (monitored),
   viii. Naval Electronic Sensor Operator - NES OP (monitored),
   ix. Naval Electronic Technician (Acoustics) - NE TECH A (monitored),
   x. Naval Electronic Technician (Communications) - NE TECH C (monitored),
   xi. Naval Electronic Technician (Tactician) - NE TECH T (monitored),
   xii. Naval Electronic Technician (Systems) - NE TECH S,
   xiii. Marine Engineer Mechanic - MAR ENG MECH (monitored),
   xiv. Marine Engineer Technician - MAR ENG TECH (monitored),
   xv. Marine Engineer Artificer - MAR ENG ART,
   xvi. Hull Technician - HULL TECH (monitored),
   xvii. Electrical Technician - ELEC TECH,
   xviii. Marine Electrician - MAR EL (monitored),
   xix. Clearance Diver - CL DIV, and
   xx. Clearance Diver Technician - CL DIV TECH.

Air Operational/Technical

5. The Air Operational/Technical MOC group includes seven officer MOCs and 24 NCM MOCs as follows:

a. officer Air Operational/Technical MOCs:
   i. Air Navigator - ANAV (monitored),
   ii. Pilot - PLT (monitored),
   iii. Aerospace Control - AEC,
   iv. Aerospace Engineering - AERE,

v. Air Traffic Control - ATC,
vi. Air Weapons Control - AWC, and
vii. Flight Engineer - FLE; and

b. NCM Air Operational/Technical MOCs:
i. Airborne Electronic Sensor Operator - AES OP (monitored),
ii. Flight Engineer - FLT ENGR (monitored),
iii. Meteorological Technician - MET TECH,
iv. Search and Rescue Technician - SAR TECH,
v. Air Traffic Controller - AIR T CON,
vi. Aerospace Control Operator - AC OP,
vii. Air Defence Technician - AD TECH,
viii. Aero-Engine Technician - AE TECH,
ix. Airframe Technician - AF TECH,
x. Aviation Technician - AVN TECH,
xi. Aviation Technician (514) - AVN TECH,
xii. Integral Systems Technician - IS TECH,
xiii. Communications and Radar Systems Technician - CRS TECH,
xiv. Avionics Technician - AVS TECH,
xv. Avionics Technician (526) - AVS TECH,
xvi. Safety Systems Technician - SS TECH,
xvii. Photographic Technician - PHT TECH,
xviii. Instrument Electrical Technician - IE TECH,
xix. Metals Technician - MTL TECH,
xx. Machinist - MACH,
xxi. Refinisher Technician - REF TECH,
xxii. Aircraft Structures Technician - ACS TECH,
xxiii. Weapons Technician (Air) - W TECH A, and
xxiv. Air Weapons Technician - AWS TECH.

Engineering/Communications

6. The Engineering and Communications MOC group includes four officer MOCs and 35 NCM MOCs as follows:

a. officer Engineering/Communications MOCs:
i. Communications and Electronic Engineering - CELE,
ii. Electrical and Mechanical Engineering - EME,
iii. Military Engineering - MILE (monitored), and
iv. Airfield Engineering - AF ENGR (monitored); and

b. NCM Engineering/Communications MOCs, which consist of three sub-groups:

i. the Electrical and Mechanical Engineering MOC sub-group:
   a) Vehicle Technician - VEH TECH,
   b) Weapons Technician - W TECH L,
   c) Electro-Mechanical Technician - EL M TECH,
   d) Fire Control Technician (Electronic) - FCT (ELEC),
   e) Fire Control Technician (Optronic) - FCT (OPT),
   f) Fire Control System Technician (Land) - FCS TECH, and
   g) Materials Technician - MAT TECH,

ii. the Military Engineers MOC sub-group:
   a) Topographical Surveyor - TOPO SVYR,
   b) Geomatic Technician - GEO TECH,
   c) Map Reproduction Technician - MAP REPRO TECH,
   d) Construction Engineering Technician - CE TECH,
   e) Structures Technician - STR TECH,
   f) Plumber Gas Fitter - PG FTR,
   g) Electrician - ELECTN,
   h) Construction and Maintenance Technician - CM TECH,
   i) Refrigeration and Mechanical Technician - RM TECH,
   j) Electrical Generating Systems Technician - EGS TECH,
   k) Stationary Engineer - STAT ENGR,
   l) Water Sanitation and POL Technician - WSP TECH,
   m) Mechanical Systems Technician - MS TECH,
   n) Construction Engineering Procedures Technician - CEP TECH, and
   o) Firefighter - FIREFTR, and

iii. the Communications MOC sub-group:
   a) Lineman - LMN (monitored),
   b) Radio Operator - RAD OP (monitored),
   c) Teletype Operator - TEL OP,
   d) Radio Technician - RAD TECH,
   e) Terminal Equipment Technician - TE TECH,
   f) Teletype and Cypher Technician - TEL TECH,
   g) Communications Technician - COMM TECH,
   h) Strategic Information System Technician - SIS TECH,
   i) Aerospace Telecommunication & Information System Technician - ATIS TECH,
   j) Land Communication Information System - LCIS TECH,
   k) Radar Technician - RDR TECH,

l) Communications Research - COMM RSCH, and
m) Performance Oriented Electronic Training - POET.

Medical/Dental

7. The Medical/Dental MOC group includes nine officer MOCs and 13 NCM MOCs as follows:

a. officer Medical/Dental MOCs:
   i. Health Care Administrator - HCA,
   ii. Physiotherapist - PHYSIO,
   iii. Dental - DENT,
   iv. Dental Associate Officer - DAO,
   v. Pharmacist - PHARM,
   vi. Medical - MED,
   vii. Medical Associate Officer - MAO,
   viii. Nursing - NURS, and
   ix. Social Worker - SOCW; and

b. NCM Medical/Dental MOCs:
   i. Medical Assistant - MED A,
   ii. Operating Room Assistant - OP RM A,
   iii. Medical Laboratory Technician - MLAB TECH,
   iv. X-Ray Technician - X TECH,
   v. Preventive Medical Technician - PMED TECH,
   vi. Biomedical Electronics Technician - BE TECH,
   vii. Health Services Technical Manager - HS TECH MGR,
   viii. Aero-Medical Technician - AERO MED TECH,
   ix. Dental Clinic Assistant - DENT CL A,
   x. Dental Laboratory Technician - DLAB TECH,
   xi. Dental Equipment Technician - DE TECH,
   xii. Dental Hygienist - DENT HYGST, and
   xiii. Aero-Medical Technician (731) - AERO MED TECH.

Support

8. The Support MOC group includes 15 officer MOCs and 13 NCM MOCs as follows:

a. officer Support MOCs:
   i. Physical Education and Recreation - PE&R,
   ii. Pastoral Associate (Roman Catholic) - PA(RC),
   iii. Chaplain (Protestant) - CHAP(P),
   iv. Chaplain (Roman Catholic) - CHAP(RC),

v. Public Affairs - PAFF,
vi. Legal - LEG,
vii. Personnel Administration - PADM,
viii. Logistics - LOG,
ix. Personnel Selection - PSEL,
x. Meteorology - MET,
xi. Training Development - TDEV,
xii. Music - MUSC,
xiii. Postal - POST,
xiv. Security - SECUR, and
xv. Intelligence - INT; and

b. NCM Support MOCs:
i. Intelligence Operator - INT OP,
ii. Military Police - MP,
iii. Administrative Clerk - ADMIN CLK,
iv. Finance Clerk - FIN CLK,
v. Physical Education and Recreation Instructor - PERI,
vi. Cook - COOK,
vii. Steward - STWD,
viii. Musician - MUSCN,
ix. Postal Clerk - POST CLK,
x. Supply Technician - SUP TECH,
xi. Ammunition Technician - AMMO TECH,
xii. Traffic Technician - TFC TECH, and
xiii. Mobile Support Equipment Operator - MSE OP.

FEMALE PARTICIPATION IN THE COMBAT ARMS MOC GROUP

Female Representation Rates

Table BI/A - Female Representation in Officer Combat Arms MOCs

MOC	1989		1998	
	STRENGTH	PERCENT	STRENGTH	PERCENT
ARMD*	1	0.2%	4	0.8%
ARTY*	2	0.3%	17	3.4%
INF*	4	0.3%	20	1.9%
ENG*	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	30	7.2%
TOTAL	7	0.3%	71	2.9%

(* - CHRC Monitored MOC)
(Note 1 – MOC did not exist at the time.)

Table BI/B - Female Representation in NCM Combat Arms MOCs

MOC	1989		1998	
	STRENGTH	PERCENT	STRENGTH	PERCENT
CRMN*	0	0.0%	19	1.0%
ARTYMN FD*	12	0.6%	31	2.2%
ARTYMN AD*	0	0.0%	10	3.2%
INFMN*	36	0.5%	21	0.4%
FD ENGR*	0	0.0%	13	1.3%
FEE OP	0	0.0%	0	0.0%
TOTAL	48	0.4%	94	0.9%

(* - CHRC Monitored MOC)

Female Shares of Enrolment

Table BII/A - Female Share of Enrolment in Officer Combat Arms MOCs

MOC	1989		1997	
	ENROLLEES	PERCENT	ENROLLEES	PERCENT
ARMD*	0	0.0%	1	7.7%
ARTY*	2	3.2%	1	6.3%
INF*	3	3.2%	11	19.0%
ENG*	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	4	18.2%
TOTAL	5	2.2%	17	15.6%

(* - CHRC Monitored MOC)
(Note 1 – MOC did not exist at the time.)

Table BII/B - Female Share of Enrolment in NCM Combat Arms MOCs

MOC	1989		1997	
	ENROLLEES	PERCENT	ENROLLEES	PERCENT
CRMN*	3	0.9%	11	4.4%
ARTYMN FD*	19	4.9%	18	6.6%
ARTYMN AD*	5	3.1%	2	10.5%
INFMN*	22	1.6%	22	2.1%
FD ENGR*	5	2.7%	2	8.7%
FEE OP	(Note 2)	(Note 2)	(Note 2)	(Note 2)
TOTAL	54	2.2%	55	3.5%

(* - CHRC Monitored MOC)
(Note 2 – MOC was not open for recruitment from outside the CF at the time.)

MOC Distributions

Table BIII/A - Distribution of Officer Combat Arms MOCs

MOC	WOMEN		MEN	
	1989	1998	1989	1998
ARMD*	14.3%	5.6%	24.1%	20.6%
ARTY*	28.6%	23.9%	25.2%	20.5%
INF*	57.1%	28.2%	50.7%	42.7%
ENG*	(Note 1)	42.3%	(Note 1)	16.2%
TOTAL	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

(* - CHRC Monitored MOC)
(Note 1 – MOC did not exist at the time.)

Table BIII/B - Distribution of NCM Combat Arms MOCs

MOC	WOMEN		MEN	
	1989	1998	1989	1998
CRMN*	0.0%	20.2%	16.2%	17.4%
ARTYMN FD*	25.0%	33.1%	15.2%	13.2%
ARTYMN AD*	0.0%	10.6%	4.9%	2.8%
INFMN*	75.0%	22.3%	52.6%	55.4%
FD ENGR*	0.0%	13.8%	9.7%	9.3%
FEE OP	0.0%	0.0%	1.4%	1.9%
TOTAL	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

(* - CHRC Monitored MOC)

Rank Distributions

Table BIV/A - Rank Distribution of Officer Combat Arms MOC Group

MOC	WOMEN		MEN	
	1989	1998	1989	1998
COL	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	80 (3.3%)	67 (2.8%)
LCOL	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	187 (7.7%)	212 (8.9%)
MAJ	0 (0.0%)	1 (1.4%)	482 (19.8%)	560 (23.5%)
CAPT	0 (0.0%)	14 (19.7%)	899 (36.9%)	1038 (43.5%)
LT	0 (0.0%)	5 (7.0%)	292 (12.0%)	143 (6.0%)
2LT	1 (14.3%)	6 (8.5%)	124 (5.1%)	86 (3.6%)
OCDT	6 (85.7%)	45 (63.4%)	375 (15.4%)	278 (11.7%)
TOTAL	7(100.0%)	71(100.0%)	2439(100.0%)	2384(100.0%)

Table BIV/B - Rank Distribution of NCM Combat Arms MOC Group

MOC	WOMEN		MEN	
	1989	1998	1989	1998
CWO	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	120 (0.9%)	83 (0.8%)
MWO	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	293 (2.3%)	240 (2.3%)
WO	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	790 (6.2%)	828 (7.8%)
SGT	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	1438 (11.3%)	1249 (11.7%)
MCPL	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	1756 (13.8%)	1425 (13.3%)
CPL	0 (0.0%)	12 (12.8%)	2919 (23.0%)	3519 (32.8%)
PTE	48(100.0%)	82 (87.2%)	5385 (42.5%)	3339 (31.3%)
TOTAL	48(100.0%)	94(100.0%)	12701(100.0%)	10683(100.0%)

Average Promotion Rates

Table BV/A - Average Promotion Rates for Officer Combat Arms MOCs (1989-97)

MOC	MAJOR		LT COLONEL		COLONEL	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
ARMD*	(Note 3)	8.8%	(Note 3)	5.8%	(Note 3)	6.8%
ARTY*	(Note 3)	5.8%	(Note 3)	5.7%	(Note 3)	5.6%
INF*	(Note 3)	7.2%	(Note 3)	6.0%	(Note 3)	5.0%
ENG*	(Note 3)	18.5%	(Note 3)	6.5%	(Note 3)	8.6%
TOTAL	(Note 3)	7.5%	(Note 3)	5.9%	(Note 3)	5.7%

(* - CHRC Monitored MOC)
(Note 3 – Promotion rate was not calculated if there were less than 50 women eligible for promotion over the period.)

Table BV/B - Average Promotion Rates for NCM Combat Arms MOCs (1989-97)

MOC	SERGEANT		WARRANT OFFICER		MASTER WARRANT OFFICER		CHIEF WARRANT OFFICER	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
CRMN*	(Note 3)	8.2%	(Note 3)	9.8%	(Note 3)	6.5%	(Note 3)	7.7%
ARTYMN FD*	(Note 3)	9.0%	(Note 3)	4.7%	(Note 3)	3.9%	(Note 3)	3.7%
ARTYMN AD*	(Note 3)	13.1%	(Note 3)	12.7%	(Note 3)	9.3%	(Note 3)	5.7%
INFMN*	(Note 3)	13.6%	(Note 3)	9.6%	(Note 3)	6.2%	(Note 3)	6.7%
FD ENGR*	(Note 3)	32.9%	(Note 3)	11.8%	(Note 3)	12.8%	(Note 3)	9.2%
FEE OP	(Note 3)	50.0%	(Note 3)	14.8%	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)
TOTAL	(Note 3)	13.1%	(Note 3)	9.1%	(Note 3)	6.7%	(Note 3)	6.4%

(* - CHRC Monitored MOC)
(Note 3 – Promotion rate was not calculated if there were less than 50 women, or men where applicable, eligible for promotion over the period.)

Average Attrition Rates

Table BVI/A - Average Attrition Rates for Officer Combat Arms MOCs (1989-1997)

MOC	FEMALE	MALE
ARMD*	(Note 4)	6.8%
ARTY*	18.9%	7.4%
INF*	24.2%	6.1%
ENG*	(Note 4)	13.4%
TOTAL	19.9%	6.7%

(* - CHRC Monitored MOC)
(Note 4 – Attrition rate was not calculated if there were less than 50 women in the total strength of the MOC over the period.)

Table BVI/B - Average Attrition Rates for NCM Combat Arms MOCs (1989-1997)

MOC	FEMALE	MALE
CRMN*	(Note 4)	7.8%
ARTYMN FD*	32.1%	10.0%
ARTYMN AD*	29.4%	12.6%
INFMN*	72.4%	11.2%
FD ENGR*	17.3%	9.4%
FEE OP	(Note 4)	6.8%
TOTAL	39.5%	10.3%

(* - CHRC Monitored MOC)
(Note 4 – Attrition rate was not calculated if there were less than 50 women in the total strength of the MOC over the period.)

FEMALE PARTICIPATION IN THE NAVAL OPERATIONAL/TECHNICAL MOC GROUP

Female Representation Rates

Table CI/A - Female Representation in Officer Naval Op/Tech MOCs

MOC	1989		1998	
	STRENGTH	PERCENT	STRENGTH	PERCENT
MARE*	18	1.8%	49	6.6%
MARS*	20	1.4%	123	10.5%
TOTAL	38	1.6%	172	9.0%

(* - CHRC Monitored MOC)

Table CI/B - Female Representation in NCM Naval Op/Tech MOCs

MOC	1989		1998	
	STRENGTH	PERCENT	STRENGTH	PERCENT
NW TECH*	3	0.4%	7	1.4%
BOSN*	4	0.5%	22	3.2%
NAV SIG*	6	1.4%	36	9.7%
NAC OP*	4	1.1%	31	7.5%
NRAD OP*	6	1.4%	36	8.1%
NCI OP*	8	1.7%	43	8.5%
NES OP*	5	1.2%	27	6.1%
NE TECH A*	2	0.8%	9	3.9%
NE TECH C*	4	1.3%	4	1.6%
NE TECH T*	5	1.2%	14	3.7%
MAR ENG MECH*	5	0.6%	10	2.3%
MAR ENG TECH*	0	0.0%	3	0.6%
HULL TECH*	3	0.7%	3	0.8%
MAR EL*	4	1.4%	5	3.1%
OCEAN OP	143	73.3%	69	51.9%
NE TECH S	0	0.0%	0	0.0%
MAR ENG ART	0	0.0%	0	0.0%
ELEC TECH	0	0.0%	1	0.3%
CL DIV	0	0.0%	0	0.0%
CL DIV TECH	0	0.0%	0	0.0%
TOTAL	202	2.5%	320	4.8%

(* - CHRC Monitored MOC)

Female Shares of Enrolment

Table CII/A - Female Share of Enrolment in Officer Naval Op/Tech MOCs

MOC	1989		1997	
	ENROLLEES	PERCENT	ENROLLEES	PERCENT
MARE*	13	19.4%	9	26.5%
MARS*	10	6.5%	28	41.2%
TOTAL	23	10.5%	37	36.3%

(* - CHRC Monitored MOC)

Table CII/B - Female Share of Enrolment in NCM Naval Op/Tech MOCs

MOC	1989		1997	
	ENROLLEES	PERCENT	ENROLLEES	PERCENT
NW TECH*	0	0.0%	0	0.0%
BOSN*	0	0.0%	9	15.0%
NAV SIG*	9	13.2%	1	33.3%
NAC OP*	4	9.5%	4	11.1%
NRAD OP*	10	13.7%	3	12.0%
NCI OP*	5	7.6%	7	15.9%
NES OP*	0	0.0%	14	33.3%
NE TECH A*	0	0.0%	1	5.9%
NE TECH C*	2	5.9%	0	0.0%
NE TECH T*	0	0.0%	3	8.1%
MAR ENG MECH*	7	2.4%	0	0.0%
MAR ENG TECH*	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	(Note 1)
HULL TECH*	0	0.0%	0	0.0%
MAR EL*	5	6.2%	0	0.0%
OCEAN OP	47	54.7%	7	53.9%
NE TECH S	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	(Note 1)
MAR ENG ART	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	(Note 1)
ELEC TECH	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	(Note 1)
CL DIV	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	(Note 1)
CL DIV TECH	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	(Note 1)
TOTAL	89	8.6%	49	13.7%

(* - CHRC Monitored MOC)
(Note 1 – MOC was not open for recruitment from outside the CF at the time.)

MOC Distributions

Table CIII/A - Distribution of Officer Naval Op/Tech MOCs

MOC	WOMEN		MEN	
	1989	1998	1989	1998
MARE*	47.3%	28.5%	42.0%	40.0%
MARS*	52.6%	71.5%	58.0%	60.0%
TOTAL	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

(* - CHRC Monitored MOC)

Table CIII/B - Distribution of NCM Naval Op/Tech MOCs

MOC	WOMEN		MEN	
	1989	1998	1989	1998
NW TECH*	1.4%	2.2%	9.0%	7.6%
BOSN*	2.0%	6.9%	9.4%	10.4%
NAV SIG*	3.0%	11.3%	5.5%	5.2%
NAC OP*	2.0%	9.7%	4.5%	6.0%
NRAD OP*	3.0%	11.3%	5.6%	6.3%
NCI OP*	4.0%	13.4%	5.8%	7.2%
NES OP*	2.5%	8.4%	5.3%	6.5%
NE TECH A*	1.0%	2.8%	3.2%	3.5%
NE TECH C*	2.0%	1.3%	4.0%	3.7%
NE TECH T*	2.5%	4.4%	5.2%	5.7%
MAR ENG MECH*	2.5%	3.1%	11.5%	6.5%
MAR ENG TECH*	0.0%	0.9%	7.8%	8.2%
HULL TECH*	1.5%	0.9%	5.8%	6.1%
MAR EL*	2.0%	1.6%	3.7%	2.4%
OCEAN OP	70.8%	21.6%	0.7%	1.0%
NE TECH S	0.0%	0.0%	2.5%	1.0%
MAR ENG ART	0.0%	0.0%	5.1%	5.5%
ELEC TECH	0.0%	0.3%	3.8%	5.3%
CL DIV	0.0%	0.0%	0.8%	0.7%
CL DIV TECH	0.0%	0.0%	0.8%	1.2%
TOTAL	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

(* - CHRC Monitored MOC)

Rank Distributions

Table CIV/A - Rank Distribution of Officer Naval Op/Tech MOC Group

MOC	WOMEN		MEN	
	1989	1998	1989	1998
CAPT(N)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	59 (2.5%)	45 (2.6%)
CDR	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	165 (7.0%)	130 (7.5%)
LCDR	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	407 (17.2%)	461 (26.5%)
LT(N)	0 (0.0%)	28 (16.3%)	713 (30.1%)	740 (42.5%)
SLT	1 (2.6%)	20 (11.6%)	332 (14.0%)	104 (6.0%)
A/SLT	5 (13.2%)	28 (16.3%)	219 (9.3%)	62 (3.6%)
OCDT	32 (84.2%)	96 (55.8%)	472 (20.0%)	199 (11.4%)
TOTAL	38(100.0%)	172(100.0%)	2367(100.0%)	1741(100.0%)

Table CIV/B - Rank Distribution of NCM Naval Op/Tech MOC Group

MOC	WOMEN		MEN	
	1989	1998	1989	1998
CPO1	1 (0.5%)	1 (0.3%)	157 (2.0%)	103 (1.6%)
CPO2	3 (1.5%)	3 (0.9%)	435 (5.6%)	373 (5.9%)
PO1	7 (3.5%)	7 (2.2%)	736 (9.4%)	659 (10.4%)
PO2	17 (8.4%)	14 (4.4%)	1081 (13.8%)	985 (15.6%)
MS	14 (6.9%)	21 (6.6%)	1044 (13.3%)	1082 (17.1%)
LS	23 (11.4%)	124 (38.8%)	1691 (21.6%)	2125 (33.6%)
OS/AB	137 (67.8%)	150 (46.8%)	2696 (34.4%)	1002 (15.8%)
TOTAL	202(100.0%)	320(100.0%)	7840(100.0%)	6329(100.0%)

Average Promotion Rates

Table CV/A - Average Promotion Rates for Officer Naval Op/Tech MOCs (1989-97)

MOC	LT COMMANDER		COMMANDER		CAPTAIN (N)	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
MARE*	(Note 2)	14.8%	(Note 2)	4.2%	(Note 2)	4.1%
MARS*	(Note 2)	8.3%	(Note 2)	5.7%	(Note 2)	5.5%
TOTAL	(Note 2)	10.3%	(Note 2)	5.1%	(Note 2)	5.0%

(* - CHRC Monitored MOC)
(Note 2 – Promotion rate was not calculated if there were less than 50 women eligible for promotion over the period.)

Table CV/B - Average Promotion Rates for NCM Naval Op/Tech MOCs (1989-97)

MOC	PO2		PO1		CPO2		CPO1	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
NW TECH*	(Note 2)	14.4%	(Note 2)	13.3%	(Note 2)	14.2%	(Note 2)	5.4%
BOSN*	(Note 2)	8.9%	(Note 2)	7.4%	(Note 2)	9.7%	(Note 2)	5.5%
NAV SIG*	(Note 2)	16.7%	(Note 2)	14.8%	(Note 2)	11.2%	(Note 2)	5.8%
NAC OP*	(Note 2)	39.9%	(Note 2)	11.0%	(Note 2)	12.0%	(Note 2)	3.2%
NRAD OP*	(Note 2)	18.5%	(Note 2)	13.6%	(Note 2)	13.4%	(Note 2)	5.7%
NCI OP*	(Note 2)	16.6%	(Note 2)	8.9%	(Note 2)	9.4%	(Note 2)	4.4%
NES OP*	(Note 2)	17.7%	(Note 2)	6.7%	(Note 2)	9.6%	(Note 2)	4.1%
NE TECH A*	(Note 2)	10.5%	(Note 2)	2.4%	(Note 2)	(Note 2)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)
NE TECH C*	(Note 2)	6.4%	(Note 2)	0.9%	(Note 2)	3.8%	(Note 3)	(Note 3)
NE TECH T*	(Note 2)	14.9%	(Note 2)	1.3%	(Note 2)	4.1%	(Note 3)	(Note 3)
MAR ENG MECH*	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)
MAR ENG TECH*	(Note 2)	13.3%	(Note 2)	0.1%	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)
HULL TECH*	(Note 2)	11.2%	(Note 2)	11.7%	(Note 2)	7.4%	(Note 2)	3.7%
MAR EL*	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)
OCEAN OP	28.3%	(Note 2)	4.0%	(Note 2)	3.9%	(Note 2)	(Note 2)	(Note 2)
NE TECH S	(Note 2)	(Note 2)	(Note 2)	(Note 2)	(Note 2)	13.6%	(Note 2)	4.3%
MAR ENG ART	(Note 2)	(Note 2)	(Note 2)	8.8%	(Note 2)	6.2%	(Note 2)	2.6%
ELEC TECH	(Note 2)	10.0%	(Note 2)	5.4%	(Note 2)	5.2%	(Note 2)	1.7%
CL DIV	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)
CL DIV TECH	(Note 2)	47.4%	(Note 2)	23.8%	(Note 2)	19.4%	(Note 2)	6.5%
TOTAL	26.0%	14.1%	4.0%	7.6%	5.9%	9.0%	(Note 2)	3.9%

(* - CHRC Monitored MOC)
(Note 2 – Promotion rate was not calculated if there were less than 50 women, or men where applicable, eligible for promotion over the period.) (Note 3 - MOC does not have any positions at the given rank.)

Average Attrition Rates

Table CVI/A - Average Attrition Rates for Officer Naval Op/Tech MOCs (1989-97)

MOC	FEMALE	MALE
MARE*	18.5%	7.8%
MARS*	16.1%	7.1%
TOTAL	16.9%	7.4%

(* - CHRC Monitored MOC)

Table CVI/B - Average Attrition Rates for NCM Naval Op/Tech MOCs (1989-97)

MOC	FEMALE	MALE
NW TECH*	(Note 4)	8.3%
BOSN*	25.0%	8.9%
NAV SIG*	17.0%	9.1%
NAC OP*	25.7%	8.6%
NRAD OP*	19.7%	9.3%
NCI OP*	19.7%	9.1%
NES OP*	31.1%	9.2%
NE TECH A*	(Note 4)	6.9%
NE TECH C*	(Note 4)	6.5%
NE TECH T*	8.1%	6.8%
MAR ENG MECH*	13.2%	11.5%
MAR ENG TECH*	(Note 4)	6.5%
HULL TECH*	(Note 4)	6.0%
MAR EL*	(Note 4)	10.3%
OCEAN OP	10.8%	10.4%
NE TECH S	(Note 4)	8.5%
MAR ENG ART	(Note 4)	8.2%
ELEC TECH	(Note 4)	5.0%
CL DIV	(Note 4)	3.7%
CL DIV TECH	(Note 4)	5.3%
TOTAL	16.4%	8.3%

(* - CHRC Monitored MOC)
(Note 4 – Attrition rate was not calculated if there were less than 50 women in the total strength of the MOC over the period.)

FEMALE PARTICIPATION IN THE AIR OPERATIONAL/TECHNICAL MOC GROUP

Female Representation Rates

Table DI/A - Female Representation in Officer Air Op/Tech MOCs

MOC	1989		1998	
	STRENGTH	PERCENT	STRENGTH	PERCENT
ANAV*	25	2.3%	59	7.2%
PLT*	43	1.5%	49	2.6%
AEC	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	59	12.5%
AERE	78	6.8%	76	10.8%
ATC	60	15.8%	(Note 1)	(Note 1)
AWC	46	12.9%	(Note 1)	(Note 1)
FLE	0	0.0%	0	0.0%
TOTAL	252	4.4%	244	6.2%

(* - CHRC Monitored MOC) (Note 1 – MOC did not exist at the time.)

Table DI/B - Female Representation in NCM Air Op/Tech MOCs

MOC	1989		1998	
	STRENGTH	PERCENT	STRENGTH	PERCENT
AES OP*	0	0.0%	5	2.3%
FLT ENGR*	4	1.0%	7	2.2%
MET TECH	21	5.5%	13	5.4%
SAR TECH	0	0.0%	1	0.8%
AIR T CON	90	19.1%	(Note 1)	(Note 1)
AC OP	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	115	19.4%
AD TECH	92	15.3%	(Note 1)	(Note 1)
AE TECH	92	5.6%	(Note 1)	(Note 1)
AF TECH	190	9.3%	(Note 1)	(Note 1)
AVN TECH	0	0.0%	(Note 1)	(Note 1)
AVN TECH (514)	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	332	8.2%
IS TECH	74	10.6%	(Note 1)	(Note 1)
CRS TECH	135	8.9%	(Note 1)	(Note 1)
AVS TECH	0	0.0%	(Note 1)	(Note 1)
AVS TECH (526)	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	167	8.6%
SS TECH	76	13.0%	(Note 1)	(Note 1)
PHT TECH	95	21.1%	57	23.6%
IE TECH	103	8.3%	(Note 1)	(Note 1)
MTL TECH	11	3.5%	(Note 1)	(Note 1)
MACH	2	2.3%	(Note 1)	(Note 1)
REF TECH	1	0.5%	(Note 1)	(Note 1)
ACS TECH	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	20	4.0%
AWS TECH	84	9.2%	(Note 1)	(Note 1)
TOTAL	1073	8.5%	717	8.7%

(* - CHRC Monitored MOC) (Note 1 – MOC did not exist at the time.)

Female Shares of Enrolment

Table DII/A - Female Share of Enrolment in Officer Air Op/Tech MOCs

MOC	1989		1997	
	ENROLLEES	PERCENT	ENROLLEES	PERCENT
ANAV*	12	13.0%	5	35.7%
PLT*	9	3.1%	11	7.5%
AEC	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	(Note 1)
AERE	9	17.0%	5	33.3%
ATC	19	43.2%	0	0.0%
AWC	6	21.4%	(Note 2)	(Note 2)
FLE	(Note 2)	(Note 2)	(Note 2)	(Note 2)
TOTAL	55	10.6%	21	11.7%

(* - CHRC Monitored MOC) (Note 1 – MOC did not exist at the time.) (Note 2 - MOC was not open for recruitment from outside the CF at the time.)

Table DII/B - Female Share of Enrolment in NCM Air Op/Tech MOCs

MOC	1989		1997	
	ENROLLEES	PERCENT	ENROLLEES	PERCENT
AES OP*	(Note 2)	(Note 2)	(Note 2)	(Note 2)
FLT ENGR*	(Note 2)	(Note 2)	(Note 2)	(Note 2)
MET TECH	5	26.3%	1	33.3%
SAR TECH	(Note 2)	(Note 2)	(Note 2)	(Note 2)
AIR T CON	14	48.3%	(Note 2)	(Note 2)
AC OP	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	4	57.1%
AD TECH	22	57.9%	1	50.0%
AE TECH	6	5.8%	1	16.7%
AF TECH	17	12.6%	3	42.9%
AVN TECH	(Note 2)	(Note 2)	(Note 2)	(Note 2)
AVN TECH (514)	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	16	12.3%
IS TECH	0	0.0%	(Note 2)	(Note 2)
CRS TECH	0	0.0%	0	0.0%
AVS TECH	(Note 2)	(Note 2)	(Note 2)	(Note 2)
AVS TECH (526)	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	1	2.0%
SS TECH	6	31.6%	2	40.0%
PHT TECH	2	25.0%	0	0.0%
IE TECH	0	0.0%	1	100.0%
MTL TECH	4	19.1%	0	0.0%
MACH	(Note 2)	(Note 2)	(Note 2)	(Note 2)
REF TECH	2	22.2%	(Note 2)	(Note 2)
ACS TECH	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	0	0.0%
AWS TECH	(Note 2)	(Note 2)	(Note 2)	(Note 2)
TOTAL	78	19.1%	33	13.8%

(* - CHRC Monitored MOC) (Note 1 – MOC did not exist at the time.) (Note 2 - MOC was not open for recruitment from outside the CF at the time.)

MOC Distributions

Table DIII/A - Distribution of Officer Air Op/Tech MOCs

MOC	WOMEN		MEN	
	1989	1998	1989	1998
ANAV*	9.9%	24.3%	19.2%	20.7%
PLT*	17.1%	20.2%	49.8%	50.7%
AEC	(Note 1)	24.3%	(Note 1)	11.4%
AERE	30.9%	31.2%	19.4%	17.2%
ATC	23.8%	(Note 1)	5.8%	(Note 1)
AWC	18.3%	(Note 1)	5.6%	(Note 1)
FLE	0.0%	0.0%	0.2%	0.0%
TOTAL	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

(* - CHRC Monitored MOC)
(Note 1 – MOC did not exist at the time.)

Table DIII/B - Distribution of NCM Air Op/Tech MOCs

MOC	WOMEN		MEN	
	1989	1998	1989	1998
AES OP*	0.0%	0.7%	2.2%	2.8%
FLT ENGR*	0.4%	1.0%	3.3%	4.1%
MET TECH	2.0%	1.8%	3.1%	3.0%
SAR TECH	0.0%	0.1%	1.1%	1.7%
AIR T CON	8.4%	(Note 1)	3.3%	(Note 1)
AC OP	(Note 1)	16.0%	(Note 1)	6.3%
AD TECH	8.6%	(Note 1)	4.4%	(Note 1)
AE TECH	8.6%	(Note 1)	13.4%	(Note 1)
AF TECH	17.8%	(Note 1)	16.1%	(Note 1)
AVN TECH	0.0%	(Note 1)	3.6%	(Note 1)
AVN TECH (514)	(Note 1)	46.4%	(Note 1)	49.7%
IS TECH	6.9%	(Note 1)	5.4%	(Note 1)
CRS TECH	12.6%	(Note 1)	12.0%	(Note 1)
AVS TECH	0.0%	(Note 1)	2.4%	(Note 1)
AVS TECH (526)	(Note 1)	23.3%	(Note 1)	23.5%
SS TECH	7.1%	(Note 1)	4.4%	(Note 1)
PHT TECH	8.9%	7.9%	3.1%	2.5%
IE TECH	9.6%	(Note 1)	9.9%	(Note 1)
MTL TECH	1.0%	(Note 1)	2.6%	(Note 1)
MACH	0.2%	(Note 1)	0.8%	(Note 1)
REF TECH	0.1%	(Note 1)	1.7%	(Note 1)
ACS TECH	(Note 1)	2.8%	(Note 1)	6.4%
AWS TECH	7.8%	(Note 1)	7.2%	(Note 1)
TOTAL	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

(* - CHRC Monitored MOC)
(Note 1 – MOC did not exist at the time.)

Rank Distributions

Table DIV/A - Rank Distribution of Officer Air Op/Tech MOC Group

MOC	WOMEN		MEN	
	1989	1998	1989	1998
COL	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	105 (1.9%)	70 (1.9%)
LCOL	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	356 (6.4%)	216 (5.9%)
MAJ	5 (2.0%)	14 (5.7%)	1003 (18.1%)	755 (20.6%)
CAPT	67 (26.6%)	124 (50.8%)	2245 (40.7%)	1919 (52.3%)
LT	43 (17.1%)	18 (7.4%)	607 (11.0%)	233 (6.4%)
2LT	45 (17.9%)	21 (8.6%)	421 (7.6%)	155 (4.2%)
OCDT	92 (36.4%)	67 (27.5%)	793 (14.3%)	320 (8.7%)
TOTAL	252(100.0%)	244(100.0%)	5530(100.0%)	3668(100.0%)

Table DIV/B - Rank Distribution of NCM Air Op/Tech MOC Group

MOC	WOMEN		MEN	
	1989	1998	1989	1998
CWO	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	369 (3.2%)	108 (1.4%)
MWO	0 (0.0%)	6 (0.8%)	791 (6.8%)	270 (3.6%)
WO	2 (0.2%)	17 (2.4%)	1635 (14.1%)	559 (7.4%)
SGT	31 (2.9%)	71 (9.9%)	1698 (14.7%)	1164 (15.5%)
MCPL	185 (17.2%)	206 (28.7%)	2384 (20.6%)	1711 (22.8%)
CPL	581 (54.2%)	363 (50.7%)	3223 (27.9%)	3375 (44.9%)
PTE	274 (25.5%)	54 (7.5%)	1472 (12.7%)	331 (4.4%)
TOTAL	1073(100.0%)	717(100.0%)	11572(100.0%)	7518(100.0%)

Average Promotion Rates

Table DV/A - Average Promotion Rates for Officer Air Op/Tech MOCs (1989-1997)

MOC	MAJOR		LT COLONEL		COLONEL	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
ANAV*	(Note 3)	6.1%	(Note 3)	6.6%	(Note 3)	8.4%
PLT*	7.7%	5.7%	(Note 3)	4.5%	(Note 3)	5.5%
AEC	(Note 3)	3.1%	(Note 3)	1.6%	(Note 3)	(Note 3)
AERE	5.0%	11.4%	(Note 3)	6.3%	(Note 3)	7.3%
ATC	5.4%	7.5%	(Note 3)	12.3%	(Note 3)	(Note 3)
AWC	4.6%	5.8%	(Note 3)	4.2%	(Note 3)	2.6%
FLE	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 4)	(Note 4)	(Note 4)	(Note 4)
TOTAL	5.8%	6.8%	(Note 3)	5.5%	(Note 3)	6.1%

(* - CHRC Monitored MOC) (Note 3 – Promotion rate was not calculated if there were less than 50 women, or men where applicable, eligible for promotion over the period.) (Note 4 - MOC does not have any positions at the given rank.)

Table DV/B - Average Promotion Rates for NCM Air Op/Tech MOCs (1989-1997)

MOC	SERGEANT		WARRANT OFFICER		MASTER WARRANT OFFICER		CHIEF WARRANT OFFICER	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
AES OP*	(Note 3)	35.9%	(Note 3)	6.0%	(Note 3)	16.6%	(Note 3)	6.7%
FLT ENGR*	(Note 3)	27.4%	(Note 3)	3.9%	(Note 3)	21.2%	(Note 3)	25.0%
MET TECH	(Note 3)	39.5%	(Note 3)	7.1%	(Note 3)	5.6%	(Note 3)	8.0%
SAR TECH	(Note 3)	28.3%	(Note 3)	1.2%	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)
AIR T CON	4.4%	8.9%	(Note 3)	10.4%	(Note 3)	20.5%	(Note 3)	11.7%
AC OP	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	(Note 1)
AD TECH	12.0%	14.5%	(Note 3)	9.5%	(Note 3)	16.2%	(Note 3)	23.8%
AE TECH	5.9%	10.2%	(Note 3)	0.0%	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)
AF TECH	3.2%	11.3%	(Note 4)	(Note 4)	(Note 4)	(Note 4)	(Note 4)	(Note 4)
AVN TECH	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	37.6%	(Note 3)	14.1%
AVN TECH (514)	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	(Note 1)
IS TECH	9.8%	8.0%	(Note 4)	(Note 4)	(Note 4)	(Note 4)	(Note 4)	(Note 4)
CRS TECH	9.5%	8.3%	(Note 4)	(Note 4)	(Note 4)	(Note 4)	(Note 4)	(Note 4)
AVS TECH	(Note 4)	(Note 4)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	19.7%	(Note 3)	13.8%
AVS TECH (526)	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	(Note 1)
SS TECH	3.2%	6.4%	(Note 3)	6.5%	(Note 3)	16.9%	(Note 3)	(Note 3)
PHT TECH	13.1%	8.2%	5.0%	2.9%	(Note 3)	21.1%	(Note 3)	(Note 3)
IE TECH	6.2%	8.0%	(Note 3)	11.4%	(Note 3)	36.4%	(Note 3)	28.2%
MTL TECH	(Note 3)	11.1%	(Note 3)	11.3%	(Note 3)	15.6%	(Note 3)	(Note 3)
MACH	(Note 3)	6.3%	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)
REF TECH	(Note 3)	8.3%	(Note 3)	18.9%	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)
ACS TECH	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	(Note 1)
AWS TECH	3.2%	6.3%	(Note 3)	9.4%	(Note 3)	24.3%	(Note 3)	18.7%
TOTAL	6.1%	10.0%	4.8%	8.2%	(Note 3)	20.2%	(Note 3)	14.2%

(* - CHRC Monitored MOC) (Note 1 – MOC did not exist at the time.) (Note 3 – Promotion rate was not calculated if there were less than 50 women, or men where applicable, eligible for promotion over the period.) (Note 4 - MOC does not have any positions at the given rank.)

Average Attrition Rates

Table DVI/A - Average Attrition Rates for Officer Air Op/Tech MOCs (1989-1997)

MOC	FEMALE	MALE
ANAV*	9.6%	7.0%
PLT*	10.9%	8.4%
AEC	(Note 1)	(Note 1)
AERE	10.3%	9.0%
ATC	10.4%	8.9%
AWC	9.4%	5.9%
FLE	(Note 5)	14.9%
TOTAL	10.3%	8.2%

(* - CHRC Monitored MOC) (Note 1 – MOC did not exist at the time.) (Note 5 – Attrition rate was not calculated if there were less than 50 women in the total strength of the MOC over the period.)

Table DVI/B - Average Attrition Rates for NCM Air Op/Tech MOCs (1989-1997)

MOC	FEMALE	MALE
AES OP*	(Note 5)	5.6%
FLT ENGR*	5.5%	6.7%
MET TECH	19.7%	7.1%
SAR TECH	(Note 5)	4.7%
AIR T CON	5.7%	6.5%
AC OP	(Note 1)	(Note 1)
AD TECH	9.0%	8.4%
AE TECH	5.0%	6.0%
AF TECH	6.3%	5.2%
AVN TECH	(Note 5)	14.9%
AVN TECH (514)	(Note 1)	(Note 1)
IS TECH	5.8%	5.4%
CRS TECH	5.4%	5.3%
AVS TECH	(Note 5)	14.1%
AVS TECH (526)	(Note 1)	(Note 1)
SS TECH	5.1%	5.9%
PHT TECH	6.5%	8.1%
IE TECH	6.4%	6.5%
MTL TECH	7.3%	6.8%
MACH	(Note 5)	5.1%
REF TECH	(Note 5)	6.7%
ACS TECH	(Note 1)	(Note 1)
AWS TECH	4.8%	6.0%
TOTAL	6.6%	6.9%

(* - CHRC Monitored MOC) (Note 1 – MOC did not exist at the time.) (Note 5 – Attrition rate was not calculated if there were less than 50 women in the total strength of the MOC over the period.)

FEMALE PARTICIPATION IN THE ENGINEERING/COMMUNICATIONS MOC GROUP

Female Representation Rates

Table EI/A - Female Representation in Officer Eng/Comm MOCs

MOC	1989		1998	
	STRENGTH	PERCENT	STRENGTH	PERCENT
CELE	84	6.8%	83	8.9%
EME	32	6.0%	27	7.7%
MILE*	39	5.3%	(Note 1)	(Note 1)
AF ENGR*	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	22	10.5%
TOTAL	155	6.2%	133	8.9%

(* - CHRC Monitored MOC)
(Note 1 – MOC did not exist at the time.)

Table EI/B - Female Representation in NCM Eng/Comm MOCs

MOC	1989		1998	
	STRENGTH	PERCENT	STRENGTH	PERCENT
VEH TECH	76	2.6%	48	2.1%
W TECH L	9	1.8%	5	1.8%
EL M TECH	1	0.8%	4	7.1%
FCT (ELEC)	4	2.6%	5	3.3%
FCT (OPT)	3	4.6%	3	4.5%
FCS TECH	1	1.1%	2	3.6%
MAT TECH	0	0.0%	1	0.5%
TOPO SVYR	1	1.5%	(Note 1)	(Note 1)
GEO TECH	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	3	2.9%
MAP REPRO TECH	0	0.0%	(Note 1)	(Note 1)
CE TECH	1	1.1%	0	0.0%
STR TECH	0	0.0%	1	0.8%
PG FTR	1	0.7%	0	0.0%
ELECTN	2	1.3%	0	0.0%
CM TECH	0	0.0%	0	0.0%
RM TECH	3	1.5%	1	0.8%
EGS TECH	3	1.8%	2	1.6%
STAT ENGR	2	2.3%	0	0.0%
WSP TECH	3	3.3%	1	1.3%
MS TECH	0	0.0%	1	1.8%
CEP TECH	39	19.8%	30	27.0%
FIREFTR	4	0.5%	4	0.8%
LMN*	3	0.8%	5	1.4%
RAD OP*	51	2.9%	70	5.8%
TEL OP	355	37.9%	222	39.4%
RAD TECH	125	10.6%	(Note 1)	(Note 1)
TE TECH	16	9.3%	(Note 1)	(Note 1)
TEL TECH	42	10.7%	(Note 1)	(Note 1)
COMM TECH	1	0.3%	(Note 1)	(Note 1)
SIS TECH	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	58	9.5%
ATIS TECH	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	47	7.3%
LCIS TECH	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	27	5.8%
RDR TECH	31	4.3%	(Note 1)	(Note 1)
COMM RSCH	135	12.5%	129	17.7%
POET	40	8.8%	(Note 1)	(Note 1)
TOTAL	952	6.7%	669	7.2%

(* - CHRC Monitored MOC)
(Note 1 – MOC did not exist at the time.)

Female Shares of Enrolment

Table EII/A - Female Share of Enrolment in Officer Eng/Comm MOCs

MOC	1989		1997	
	ENROLLEES	PERCENT	ENROLLEES	PERCENT
CELE	9	12.2%	0	0.0%
EME	3	5.1%	2	18.2%
MILE*	3	10.3%	(Note 2)	(Note 2)
AF ENGR*	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	1	33.3%
TOTAL	15	9.3%	3	20.0%

(* - CHRC Monitored MOC)
(Note 1 – MOC did not exist at the time.) (Note 2 - MOC was not open for recruitment from outside the CF at the time.)

Table EII/B - Female Share of Enrolment in NCM Eng/Comm MOCs

MOC	1989		1997	
	ENROLLEES	PERCENT	ENROLLEES	PERCENT
VEH TECH	9	3.7%	6	5.3%
W TECH L	9	15.8%	0	0.0%
EL M TECH	(Note 2)	(Note 2)	1	3.1%
FCT (ELEC)	(Note 2)	(Note 2)	(Note 2)	(Note 2)
FCT (OPT)	(Note 2)	(Note 2)	(Note 2)	(Note 2)
FCS TECH	(Note 2)	(Note 2)	(Note 2)	(Note 2)
MAT TECH	4	14.3%	0	0.0%
TOPO SVYR	1	100.0%	(Note 2)	(Note 2)
GEO TECH	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	(Note 2)	(Note 2)
MAP REPRO TECH	(Note 2)	(Note 2)	(Note 2)	(Note 2)
CE TECH	(Note 2)	(Note 2)	(Note 2)	(Note 2)
STR TECH	(Note 2)	(Note 2)	(Note 2)	(Note 2)
PG FTR	(Note 2)	(Note 2)	(Note 2)	(Note 2)
ELECTN	(Note 2)	(Note 2)	(Note 2)	(Note 2)
CM TECH	(Note 2)	(Note 2)	(Note 2)	(Note 2)
RM TECH	(Note 2)	(Note 2)	(Note 2)	(Note 2)
EGS TECH	0	0.0%	0	0.0%
STAT ENGR	(Note 2)	(Note 2)	(Note 2)	(Note 2)
WSP TECH	0	0.0%	(Note 2)	(Note 2)
MS TECH	(Note 2)	(Note 2)	(Note 2)	(Note 2)
CEP TECH	(Note 2)	(Note 2)	(Note 2)	(Note 2)
FIREFTR	2	7.1%	2	14.3%
LMN*	1	3.5%	1	2.5%
RAD OP*	19	11.7%	20	23.0%
TEL OP	33	62.3%	2	100.0%
RAD TECH	(Note 2)	(Note 2)	0	0.0%
TE TECH	(Note 2)	(Note 2)	(Note 1)	(Note 1)
TEL TECH	(Note 2)	(Note 2)	(Note 1)	(Note 1)
COMM TECH	(Note 2)	(Note 2)	(Note 1)	(Note 1)
SIS TECH	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	(Note 2)	(Note 2)
ATIS TECH	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	1	25.0%
LCIS TECH	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	2	13.3%
RDR TECH	(Note 2)	(Note 2)	(Note 1)	(Note 1)
COMM RSCH	117	5?.4%	2	50.0%
POET	(Note 2)	(Note 2)	(Note 1)	(Note 1)
TOTAL	267	19.2%	40	11.1%

(* - CHRC Monitored MOC) (Note 1 – MOC did not exist at the time.) (Note 2 - MOC was not open for recruitment from outside the CF at the time.)

MOC Distributions

Table EIII/A - Distribution of Officer Eng/Comm MOCs

MOC	WOMEN		MEN	
	1989	1998	1989	1998
CELE	54.2%	62.4%	49.3%	62.4%
EME	20.6%	20.3%	21.2%	23.7%
MILE*	25.2%	(Note 1)	29.5%	(Note 1)
AF ENGR*	(Note 1)	17.3%	(Note 1)	13.9%
TOTAL	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

(* - CHRC Monitored MOC)
(Note 1 - MOC did not exist at the time.)

Table EIII/B - Distribution of NCM Eng/Comm MOCs

MOC	WOMEN		MEN	
	1989	1998	1989	1998
VEH TECH	8.0%	7.2%	21.6%	25.4%
W TECH L	0.9%	0.7%	3.7%	3.3%
EL M TECH	0.1%	0.6%	0.9%	0.6%
FCT (ELEC)	0.4%	0.8%	1.1%	1.7%
FCT (OPT)	0.3%	0.4%	0.5%	0.7%
FCS TECH	0.1%	0.3%	0.7%	0.6%
MAT TECH	0.0%	0.1%	2.1%	2.7%
TOPO SVYR	0.1%	(Note 1)	0.5%	(Note 1)
GEO TECH	(Note 1)	0.4%	(Note 1)	1.1%
MAP REPRO TECH	0.0%	(Note 1)	0.4%	(Note 1)
CE TECH	0.1%	0.0%	0.7%	0.4%
STR TECH	0.0%	0.1%	1.8%	1.5%
PG FTR	0.1%	0.0%	1.1%	0.9%
ELECTN	0.2%	0.0%	1.2%	1.3%
CM TECH	0.0%	0.0%	1.8%	0.5%
RM TECH	0.3%	0.1%	1.5%	1.4%
EGS TECH	0.3%	0.2%	1.2%	1.4%
STAT ENGR	0.2%	0.0%	0.6%	0.3%
WSP TECH	0.3%	0.1%	0.7%	0.9%
MS TECH	0.0%	0.1%	0.6%	0.6%
CEP TECH	4.1%	4.5%	1.2%	0.9%
FIREFTR	0.4%	0.6%	6.6%	6.0%
LMN*	0.3%	0.5%	2.7%	4.2%
RAD OP*	5.4%	10.5%	12.8%	13.2%
TEL OP	37.4%	33.2%	4.4%	4.0%
RAD TECH	13.1%	(Note 1)	8.0%	(Note 1)
TE TECH	1.7%	(Note 1)	1.2%	(Note 1)
TEL TECH	4.4%	(Note 1)	2.7%	(Note 1)
COMM TECH	0.1%	(Note 1)	2.3%	(Note 1)
SIS TECH	(Note 1)	8.7%	(Note 1)	6.4%
ATIS TECH	(Note 1)	7.0%	(Note 1)	6.9%
LCIS TECH	(Note 1)	2.9%	(Note 1)	5.1%
RDR TECH	3.3%	(Note 1)	5.2%	(Note 1)
COMM RSCH	14.2%	19.3%	7.1%	7.0%
POET	4.2%	(Note 1)	3.1%	(Note 1)
TOTAL	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

(* - CHRC Monitored MOC)
(Note 1 - MOC did not exist at the time.)

Rank Distributions

Table EIV/A - Rank Distribution of Officer Eng/Comm MOC Group

MOC	WOMEN		MEN	
	1989	1998	1989	1998
COL	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	55 (2.3%)	28 (2.0%)
LCOL	0 (0.0%)	2 (1.5%)	178 (7.6%)	107 (7.8%)
MAJ	2 (1.2%)	24 (18.0%)	528 (22.5%)	386 (28.2%)
CAPT	41 (26.5%)	61 (45.9%)	848 (36.1%)	611 (44.7%)
LT	42 (27.1%)	17 (12.8%)	320 (13.6%)	101 (7.4%)
2LT	22 (14.2%)	13 (9.8%)	159 (6.8%)	54 (3.9%)
OCDT	48 (31.0%)	16 (12.0%)	260 (11.1%)	82 (6.0%)
TOTAL	155(100.0%)	133(100.0%)	2348(100.0%)	1369(100.0%)

Table EIV/B - Rank Distribution of NCM Eng/Comm MOC Group

MOC	WOMEN		MEN	
	1989	1998	1989	1998
CWO	0 (0.0%)	2 (0.3%)	470 (3.6%)	180 (2.1%)
MWO	0 (0.0%)	8 (1.2%)	925 (7.0%)	432 (5.0%)
WO	14 (1.5%)	19 (2.8%)	1419 (10.7%)	660 (7.7%)
SGT	34 (3.6%)	73 (10.9%)	1600 (12.1%)	1198 (13.9%)
MCPL	137 (14.4%)	109 (16.3%)	2330 (17.6%0	2032 (23.5%)
CPL	389 (40.8%)	398 (59.5%)	3928 (29.8%)	3566 (41.3%)
PTE	378 (39.7%)	60 (9.0%)	2535 (19.2%)	563 (6.5%)
TOTAL	952(100.0%)	669(100.0%)	13207(100.0%)	8631(100.0%)

Average Promotion Rates

Table EV/A - Average Promotion Rates for Officer Eng/Comm MOCs (1989-1997)

MOC	MAJOR		LT COLONEL		COLONEL	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
CELE	15.9%	20.2%	(Note 3)	6.9%	(Note 3)	5.1%
EME	10.0%	13.5%	(Note 3)	4.2%	(Note 3)	1.3%
MILE*	(Note 3)	11.0%	(Note 3)	5.9%	(Note 3)	3.6%
AF ENGR*	(Note 3)	7.5%	(Note 3)	8.6%	(Note 3)	(Note 3)
TOTAL	13.6%	15.2%	(Note 3)	6.1%	(Note 3)	3.9%

(* - CHRC Monitored MOC)
(Note 3 - Promotion rate was not calculated if there were less than 50 women, or men where applicable, eligible for promotion over the period.)

Table EV/B - Average Promotion Rates for NCM Eng/Comm MOCs (1989-1997)

MOC	SERGEANT		WARRANT OFFICER		MASTER WARRANT OFFICER		CHIEF WARRANT OFFICER	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
VEH TECH	15.6%	13.4%	(Note 3)	16.1%	(Note 3)	24.1%	(Note 3)	7.8%
W TECH L	(Note 3)	9.6%	(Note 3)	13.0%	(Note 3)	12.1%	(Note 3)	6.7%
EL M TECH	(Note 4)	(Note 4)	(Note 4)	(Note 4)	(Note 4)	(Note 4)	(Note 4)	(Note 4)
FCT (ELEC)	(Note 3)	8.0%	(Note 4)	(Note 4)	(Note 4)	(Note 4)	(Note 4)	(Note 4)
FCT (OPT)	(Note 3)	9.2%	(Note 4)	(Note 4)	(Note 4)	(Note 4)	(Note 4)	(Note 4)
FCS TECH	(Note 4)	(Note 4)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	29.5%	(Note 3)	10.8%
MAT TECH	(Note 3)	19.5%	(Note 3)	14.1%	(Note 3)	29.8%	(Note 3)	(Note 3)
TOPO SVYR	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	5.3%	(Note 3)	4.0%	(Note 3)	(Note 3)
GEO TECH	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)
MAP REPRO TECH	(Note 3)	29.0%	(Note 3)	2.9%	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)
CE TECH	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	0.0%	(Note 4)	(Note 4)	(Note 4)	(Note 4)
STR TECH	(Note 3)	32.9%	(Note 4)	(Note 4)	(Note 4)	(Note 4)	(Note 4)	(Note 4)
PG FTR	(Note 3)	27.0%	(Note 3)	0.0%	(Note 4)	(Note 4)	(Note 4)	(Note 4)
ELECTN	(Note 3)	38.2%	(Note 3)	0.0%	(Note 4)	(Note 4)	(Note 4)	(Note 4)
CM TECH	(Note 4)	(Note 4)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	19.7%	(Note 3)	6.0%
RM TECH	(Note 3)	21.2%	(Note 3)	15.7%	(Note 4)	(Note 4)	(Note 4)	(Note 4)
EGS TECH	(Note 3)	12.4%	(Note 3)	8.0%	(Note 4)	(Note 4)	(Note 4)	(Note 4)
STAT ENGR	(Note 3)	10.6%	(Note 3)	15.7%	(Note 4)	(Note 4)	(Note 4)	(Note 4)
WSP TECH	(Note 3)	33.7%	(Note 3)	16.3%	(Note 4)	(Note 4)	(Note 4)	(Note 4)
MS TECH	(Note 4)	(Note 4)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	8.7%
CEP TECH	(Note 3)	17.1%	(Note 3)	7.7%	4.7%	12.0%	24.7%	8.1%
FIREFTR	(Note 3)	11.2%	(Note 3)	6.8%	(Note 3)	9.9%	(Note 3)	10.8%
LMN*	(Note 3)	11.3%	(Note 3)	15.0%	(Note 3)	38.0%	(Note 3)	9.5%
RAD OP*	(Note 3)	5.7%	(Note 3)	3.3%	(Note 3)	24.9%	(Note 3)	19.0%
TEL OP	14.4%	18.3%	15.5%	13.5%	(Note 3)	20.5%	(Note 3)	24.6%
RAD TECH	8.2%	12.7%	(Note 3)	0.0%	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)
TE TECH	(Note 3)	16.2%	(Note 3)	0.0%	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)
TEL TECH	8.8%	12.3%	(Note 3)	0.0%	(Note 4)	(Note 4)	(Note 4)	(Note 4)
COMM TECH	(Note 4)	(Note 4)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	36.1%	(Note 3)	9.4%
SIS TECH	(Note 3)	1.3%	(Note 3)	0.0%	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)
ATIS TECH	(Note 3)	0.0%	(Note 3)	0.7%	(Note 3)	6.5%	(Note 3)	(Note 3)
LCIS TECH	(Note 3)	1.1%	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)
RDR TECH	(Note 3)	19.6%	(Note 3)	15.9%	(Note 3)	31.1%	(Note 3)	10.3%
COMM RSCH	(Note 3)	6.3%	(Note 3)	7.2%	(Note 3)	15.0%	(Note 3)	7.2%
POET	(Note 4)	(Note 4)	(Note 4)	(Note 4)	(Note 4)	(Note 4)	(Note 4)	(Note 4)
TOTAL	13.1%	11.7%	11.0%	9.9%	26.9%	21.4%	(Note 3)	9.2%

(* - CHRC Monitored MOC) (Note 3 - Promotion rate was not calculated if there were less than 50 women, or men where applicable, eligible for promotion over the period.) (Note 4 - MOC does not have any positions at the given rank.)

Average Attrition Rates

Table EVI/A - Average Attrition Rates for Officer Eng/Comm MOCs (1989-1997)

MOC	FEMALE	MALE
CELE	9.4%	8.1%
EME	8.2%	9.4%
MILE*	8.9%	6.3%
AF ENGR*	(Note 1)	(Note 1)
TOTAL	9.1%	8.2%

(* - CHRC Monitored MOC)
(Note 1 - MOC did not exist at the time.)

Table EVI/B - Average Attrition Rates for NCM Eng/Comm MOCs (1989-1997)

MOC	FEMALE	MALE
VEH TECH	10.3%	7.5%
W TECH L	12.0%	7.1%
EL M TECH	(Note 5)	9.8%
FCT (ELEC)	(Note 5)	6.7%
FCT (OPT)	(Note 5)	5.7%
FCS TECH	(Note 5)	10.0%
MAT TECH	(Note 5)	7.3%
TOPO SVYR	(Note 5)	4.1%
GEO TECH	(Note 1)	(Note 1)
MAP REPRO TECH	(Note 5)	5.2%
CE TECH	(Note 5)	7.7%
STR TECH	(Note 5)	7.0%
PG FTR	(Note 5)	6.2%
ELECTN	(Note 5)	4.8%
CM TECH	(Note 5)	10.8%
RM TECH	(Note 5)	6.8%
EGS TECH	(Note 5)	6.9%
STAT ENGR	(Note 5)	10.0%
WSP TECH	(Note 5)	5.7%
MS TECH	(Note 5)	10.8%
CEP TECH	6.7%	8.8%
FIREFTR	(Note 5)	7.9%
LMN*	(Note 5)	6.7%
RAD OP*	17.7%	7.8%
TEL OP	7.9%	8.6%
RAD TECH	6.4%	4.9%
TE TECH	2.3%	4.3%
TEL TECH	7.2%	5.6%
COMM TECH	(Note 5)	13.1%
SIS TECH	6.7%	8.6%
ATIS TECH	(Note 5)	7.7%
LCIS TECH	(Note 5)	6.0%
RDR TECH	7.0%	8.3%
COMM RSCH	13.1%	7.7%
POET	(Note 5)	(Note 5)
TOTAL	8.6%	8.2%

(* - CHRC Monitored MOC) (Note 1 - MOC did not exist at the time.) (Note 5 - Attrition rate was not calculated if there were less than 50 women, or men where applicable, in the total strength of the MOC over the period.)

FEMALE PARTICIPATION IN THE MEDICAL/DENTAL MOC GROUP

Female Representation Rates

Table FI/A - Female Representation in Officer Medical/Dental MOCs

MOC	1989		1998	
	STRENGTH	PERCENT	STRENGTH	PERCENT
HCA	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	12	10.8%
PHYSIO	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	5	27.8%
DENT	34	13.8%	26	23.2%
DAO	2	11.8%	16	51.6%
PHARM	51	55.4%	27	51.9%
MED	96	20.6%	56	20.8%
MAO	40	17.7%	5	23.8%
NURS	420	88.6%	242	77.8%
SOCW	10	23.8%	11	35.5%
TOTAL	653	41.8%	400	41.8%

(Note 1 - MOC did not exist at the time.)

Table FI/B - Female Representation in NCM Medical/Dental MOCs

MOC	1989		1998	
	STRENGTH	PERCENT	STRENGTH	PERCENT
MED A	328	20.4%	320	28.8%
OP RM A	4	10.3%	4	19.1%
MLAB TECH	20	22.2%	21	48.8%
X TECH	20	23.8%	3	13.6%
PMED TECH	2	2.3%	4	5.6%
AERO MED TECH	0	0.0%	(Note 1)	(Note 1)
BE TECH	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	2	13.3%
HS TECH MGR	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	1	3.6%
DENT CL A	135	51.1%	83	53.2%
DLAB TECH	11	14.9%	(Note 1)	(Note 1)
DE TECH	3	14.3%	(Note 1)	(Note 1)
DENT HYGST	50	75.8%	40	80.0%
AERO MED TECH (731)	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	0	0.0%
TOTAL	573	24.2%	478	31.1%

(Note 1 - MOC did not exist at the time.)

Female Shares of Enrolment

Table FII/A - Female Share of Enrolment in Officer Medical/Dental MOCs

MOC	1989		1997	
	ENROLLEES	PERCENT	ENROLLEES	PERCENT
HCA	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	(Note 2)	(Note 2)
PHYSIO	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	(Note 2)	(Note 2)
DENT	6	33.3%	(Note 2)	(Note 2)
DAO	(Note 2)	(Note 2)	(Note 2)	(Note 2)
PHARM	7	50.0%	(Note 2)	(Note 2)
MED	9	16.4%	2	40.0%
MAO	4	66.7%	(Note 2)	(Note 2)
NURS	36	92.3%	28	84.9%
SOCW	3	50.0%	(Note 2)	(Note 2)
TOTAL	65	46.8%	30	76.9%

(Note 1 - MOC did not exist at the time.) (Note 2 - MOC was not open for recruitment from outside the CF at the time.)

Table FII/B - Female Share of Enrolment in NCM Medical/Dental MOCs

MOC	1989		1997	
	ENROLLEES	PERCENT	ENROLLEES	PERCENT
MED A	67	46.5%	38	58.5%
OP RM A	(Note 2)	(Note 2)	(Note 2)	(Note 2)
MLAB TECH	4	80.0%	(Note 2)	(Note 2)
X TECH	(Note 2)	(Note 2)	(Note 2)	(Note 2)
PMED TECH	(Note 2)	(Note 2)	(Note 2)	(Note 2)
AERO MED TECH	(Note 2)	(Note 2)	(Note 2)	(Note 2)
BE TECH	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	(Note 1)
HS TECH MGR	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	(Note 1)
DENT CL A	14	77.8%	1	100.0%
DLAB TECH	(Note 2)	(Note 2)	1	50.0%
DE TECH	(Note 2)	(Note 2)	(Note 2)	(Note 2)
DENT HYGST	1	100.0%	(Note 2)	(Note 2)
AERO MED TECH (731)	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	(Note 1)
TOTAL	86	51.2%	40	58.0%

(Note 1 - MOC did not exist at the time.) (Note 2 - MOC was not open for recruitment from outside the CF at the time.)

MOC Distributions

Table FIII/A - Distribution of Officer Medical/Dental MOCs

MOC	WOMEN		MEN	
	1989	1998	1989	1998
HCA	(Note 1)	3.0%	(Note 1)	17.8%
PHYSIO	(Note 1)	1.3%	(Note 1)	2.3%
DENT	5.2%	6.5%	23.3%	15.5%
DAO	0.3%	4.0%	1.7%	2.7%
PHARM	7.8%	6.8%	4.5%	4.5%
MED	14.7%	14.0%	40.7%	38.3%
MAO	6.1%	1.3%	20.4%	2.9%
NURS	64.4%	60.3%	5.9%	12.4%
SOCW	1.5%	2.8%	3.5%	3.6%
TOTAL	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

(Note 1 - MOC did not exist at the time.)

Table FIII/B - Distribution of NCM Medical/Dental MOCs

MOC	WOMEN		MEN	
	1989	1998	1989	1998
MED A	57.3%	67.0%	71.2%	74.7%
OP RM A	0.7%	0.8%	1.9%	1.6%
MLAB TECH	3.5%	4.4%	3.9%	2.1%
X TECH	3.5%	0.6%	3.6%	1.8%
PMED TECH	0.3%	0.8%	4.8%	6.3%
AERO MED TECH	0.0%	(Note 1)	2.0%	(Note 1)
BE TECH	(Note 1)	0.4%	(Note 1)	1.2%
HS TECH MGR	(Note 1)	0.2%	(Note 1)	2.5%
DENT CL A	23.6%	17.4%	7.2%	6.9%
DLAB TECH	1.9%	(Note 1)	3.5%	(Note 1)
DE TECH	0.5%	(Note 1)	1.0%	(Note 1)
DENT HYGST	8.7%	8.4%	0.9%	1.1%
AERO MED TECH (731)	(Note 1)	0.0%	(Note 1)	1.9%
TOTAL	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

(Note 1 - MOC did not exist at the time.)

Rank Distributions

Table FIV/A - Rank Distribution of Officer Medical/Dental MOC Group

MOC	WOMEN		MEN	
	1989	1998	1989	1998
COL	3 (0.5%)	3 (0.8%)	22 (2.4%)	7 (1.3%)
LCOL	4 (0.6%)	8 (2.0%)	77 (8.5%)	36 (6.5%)
MAJ	58 (8.9%)	48 (12.0%)	227 (24.9%)	145 (26.1%)
CAPT	352 (53.9%)	264 (65.9%)	331 (36.3%)	268 (48.1%)
LT	122 (18.7%)	48 (12.0%)	82 (9.0%)	56 (10.1%)
2LT	40 (6.1%)	6 (1.5%)	130 (14.3%)	15 (2.7%)
OCDT	74 (11.3%)	23 (5.8%)	42 (4.6%)	29 (5.2%)
TOTAL	653(100.0%)	400(100.0%)	911(100.0%)	556(100.0%)

Table FIV/B - Rank Distribution of NCM Medical/Dental MOC Group

MOC	WOMEN		MEN	
	1989	1998	1989	1998
CWO	0 (0.0%)	1 (0.2%)	37 (2.1%)	13 (1.2%)
MWO	3 (0.5%)	3 (0.6%)	72 (4.0%)	28 (2.6%)
WO	32 (5.6%)	51 (10.7%)	163 (9.1%)	105 (9.9%)
SGT	77 (13.4%)	64 (13.4%)	383 (21.3%)	197 (18.6%)
MCPL	73 (12.7%)	42 (8.8%)	258 (14.3%)	223 (21.0%)
CPL	202 (35.3%)	268 (56.0%)	483 (26.8%)	451 (42.5%)
PTE	186 (32.5%)	49 (10.3%)	403 (22.4%)	44 (4.2%)
TOTAL	573(100.0%)	478(100.0%)	1799(100.0%)	1061(100.0%)

Average Promotion Rates

Table FV/A - Average Promotion Rates for Officer Medical/Dental MOCs (1989-97)

MOC	MAJOR		LT COLONEL		COLONEL	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
HCA	(Note 3)	5.4%	(Note 3)	2.8%	(Note 3)	(Note 3)
PHYSIO	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 4)	(Note 4)	(Note 4)	(Note 4)
DENT	(Note 3)	22.2%	(Note 3)	4.0%	(Note 3)	3.0%
DAO	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)
PHARM	5.4%	12.1%	(Note 3)	5.0%	(Note 3)	(Note 3)
MED	(Note 3)	60.1%	(Note 3)	7.5%	(Note 3)	7.4%
MAO	(Note 3)	11.3%	(Note 3)	4.5%	(Note 3)	(Note 3)
NURS	2.4%	0.0%	1.7%	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)
SOCW	(Note 3)	6.1%	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 4)	(Note 4)
TOTAL	4.3%	14.7%	4.5%	5.7%	(Note 3)	5.5%

(Note 3 - Promotion rate was not calculated if there were less than 50 women, or men where applicable, eligible for promotion over the period.) (Note 4 - MOC does not have any positions at the given rank.)

Table FV/B - Average Promotion Rates for NCM Medical/Dental MOCs (1989-97)

MOC	SERGEANT		WARRANT OFFICER		MASTER WARRANT OFFICER		CHIEF WARRANT OFFICER	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
MED A	7.1%	10.3%	10.6%	7.0%	1.3%	5.1%	(Note 3)	5.9%
OP RM A	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	3.9%	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)
MLAB TECH	(Note 3)	14.0%	(Note 3)	4.3%	(Note 3)	9.1%	(Note 3)	(Note 3)
X TECH	(Note 3)	14.3%	(Note 3)	6.1%	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)
PMED TECH	(Note 3)	20.7%	(Note 3)	8.8%	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)
AERO MED TECH	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)
BE TECH	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	(Note 1)
HS TECH MGR	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	(Note 1)
DENT CL A	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	3.1%	2.8%	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)
DLAB TECH	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	1.1%	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)
DE TECH	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)
DENT HYGST	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	2.1%	(Note 3)	6.1%	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)
AERO MED TECH(731)	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	(Note 1)	(Note 1)
TOTAL	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	5.6%	6.1%	5.6%	7.0%	(Note 3)	8.3%

(Note 1 - MOC did not exist at the time.) (Note 3 - Promotion rate was not calculated if there were less than 50 women, or men where applicable, eligible for promotion over the period.)

Average Attrition Rates

Table FVI/A - Average Attrition Rates for Officer Medical/Dental MOCs (1989-97)

MOC	FEMALE	MALE
HCA	1.7%	10.2%
PHYSIO	22.6%	10.5%
DENT	9.7%	12.9%
DAO	(Note 5)	14.9%
PHARM	9.8%	9.7%
MED	11.9%	10.9%
MAO	7.0%	7.4%
NURS	10.2%	6.5%
SOCW	6.6%	9.1%
TOTAL	10.3%	10.5%

(Note 5 - Attrition rate was not calculated if there were less than 50 women in the total strength of the MOC over the period.)

Table FVI/B - Average Attrition Rates for NCM Medical/Dental MOCs (1989-97)

MOC	FEMALE	MALE
MED A	9.7%	6.9%
OP RM A	(Note 5)	9.9%
MLAB TECH	8.4%	9.8%
X TECH	15.2%	13.6%
PMED TECH	9.8%	5.5%
AERO MED TECH	(Note 5)	7.4%
BE TECH	(Note 1)	(Note 1)
HS TECH MGR	(Note 1)	(Note 1)
DENT CL A	8.9%	8.2%
DLAB TECH	18.5%	15.5%
DE TECH	(Note 5)	16.1%
DENT HYGST	7.9%	11.9%
AERO MED TECH (731)	(Note 1)	(Note 1)
TOTAL	9.6%	7.8%

(Note 1 - MOC did not exist at the time.) (Note 5 - Attrition rate was not calculated if there were less than 50 women in the total strength of the MOC over the period.)

FEMALE PARTICIPATION IN THE SUPPORT MOC GROUP

Female Representation Rates

Table GI/A - Female Representation in Officer Support MOCs

MOC	1989		1998	
	STRENGTH	PERCENT	STRENGTH	PERCENT
PE&R	14	16.7%	(Note 1)	(Note 1)
PA(RC)	2	18.2%	2	9.1%
CHAP(P)	4	3.9%	6	9.4%
CHAP(RC)	0	0.0%	0	0.0%
PAFF	7	12.5%	14	17.1%
LEG	8	12.3%	12	14.5%
PADM	89	24.0%	83	33.2%
LOG	382	19.6%	306	25.7%
PSEL	22	19.5%	35	35.0%
TDEV	12	9.2%	18	14.3%
MUSC	0	0.0%	1	9.1%
POST	0	0.0%	1	11.1%
SECUR	18	8.9%	15	11.0%
INT	9	6.5%	14	8.6%
TOTAL	567	17.0%	509	22.4%

(Note 1 - MOC did not exist at the time.)

Table GI/B - Female Representation in NCM Support MOCs

MOC	1989		1998	
	STRENGTH	PERCENT	STRENGTH	PERCENT
INT OP	1	0.4%	7	3.1%
MP	206	11.4%	114	10.2%
ADMIN CLK	1353	37.0%	1024	42.9%
FIN CLK	428	32.2%	330	39.6%
PERI	33	7.3%	(Note 1)	(Note 1)
COOK	191	10.8%	158	13.6%
STWD	38	4.9%	45	10.4%
MUSCN	54	12.8%	29	14.2%
POST CLK	14	7.2%	15	12.9%
SUP TECH	1187	27.1%	758	26.5%
AMMO TECH	16	8.6%	11	6.8%
TFCTECH	136	15.1%	104	17.4%
MSE OP	418	13.2%	228	12.4%
TOTAL	4075	21.2%	2823	23.6%

(Note 1 - MOC did not exist at the time.)

Female Shares of Enrolment

Table GII/A - Female Share of Enrolment in Officer Support MOCs

MOC	1989		1997	
	ENROLLEES	PERCENT	ENROLLEES	PERCENT
PE&R	(Note 2)	(Note 2)	(Note 2)	(Note 2)
PA(RC)	0	0.0%	0	0.0%
CHAP(P)	1	16.7%	(Note 2)	(Note 2)
CHAP(RC)	(Note 2)	(Note 2)	(Note 2)	(Note 2)
PAFF	1	50.0%	1	25.0%
LEG	1	14.3%	3	50.0%
PADM	5	50.0%	4	66.7%
LOG	51	44.4%	7	70.0%
PSEL	2	100.0%	2	100.0%
TDEV	2	66.7%	(Note 2)	(Note 2)
MUSC	(Note 2)	(Note 2)	(Note 2)	(Note 2)
POST	(Note 2)	(Note 2)	(Note 2)	(Note 2)
SECUR	5	33.3%	(Note 2)	(Note 2)
INT	(Note 2)	(Note 2)	(Note 2)	(Note 2)
TOTAL	68	40.5%	17	56.7%

(Note 2 - MOC was not open for recruitment from outside the CF at the time.)

Table GII/B - Female Share of Enrolment in NCM Support MOCs

MOC	1989		1997	
	ENROLLEES	PERCENT	ENROLLEES	PERCENT
INT OP	(Note 2)	(Note 2)	0	0.0%
MP	27	20.5%	2	20.0%
ADMIN CLK	179	63.9%	4	80.0%
FIN CLK	57	64.8%	27	71.1%
PERI	(Note 2)	(Note 2)	(Note 2)	(Note 2)
COOK	74	30.3%	22	23.7%
STWD	30	35.7%	17	53.1%
MUSCN	8	34.8%	0	0.0%
POST CLK	2	50.0%	0	0.0%
SUP TECH	110	42.2%	56	39.7%
AMMO TECH	4	17.4%	0	0.0%
TFCTECH	22	32.6%	11	61.1%
MSE OP	41	20.8%	2	12.5%
TOTAL	554	39.5%	141	39.1%

(Note 2 - MOC was not open for recruitment from outside the CF at the time.)

MOC Distributions

Table GIII/A - Distribution of Officer Support MOCs

MOC	WOMEN		MEN	
	1989	1998	1989	1998
PE&R	2.5%	(Note 1)	2.5%	(Note 1)
PA(RC)	0.3%	0.4%	0.3%	1.1%
CHAP(P)	0.7%	1.2%	3.6%	3.3%
CHAP(RC)	0.0%	0.0%	2.8%	2.1%
PAFF	1.2%	2.8%	1.8%	3.8%
LEG	1.4%	2.4%	2.1%	4.0%
PADM	15.7%	16.3%	10.2%	9.5%
LOG	67.4%	60.2%	56.6%	50.1%
PSEL	3.9%	6.9%	3.3%	3.7%
TDEV	2.1%	3.5%	4.3%	6.1%
MUSC	0.0%	0.3%	0.6%	0.6%
POST	0.0%	0.3%	0.5%	0.5%
SECUR	3.2%	2.9%	6.7%	6.8%
INT	1.6%	2.8%	4.7%	8.4%
TOTAL	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

(Note 1 - MOC did not exist at the time.)

Table GIII/B - Distribution of NCM Support MOCs

MOC	WOMEN		MEN	
	1989	1998	1989	1998
INT OP	0.0%	0.2%	1.5%	2.4%
MP	5.1%	4.0%	10.5%	11.0%
ADMIN CLK	33.3%	36.3%	15.1%	14.9%
FIN CLK	10.5%	11.7%	5.9%	5.5%
PERI	0.8%	(Note 1)	2.7%	(Note 1)
COOK	4.7%	5.6%	10.4%	10.9%
STWD	0.9%	1.6%	4.8%	4.3%
MUSCN	1.3%	1.0%	2.4%	1.9%
POST CLK	0.3%	0.5%	1.2%	1.2%
SUP TECH	29.1%	26.9%	21.1%	23.2%
AMMO TECH	0.4%	0.4%	1.2%	1.6%
TFCTECH	3.3%	3.7%	5.0%	5.4%
MSE OP	10.3%	8.1%	18.2%	17.7%
TOTAL	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

(Note 1 - MOC did not exist at the time.)

Rank Distributions

Table GIV/A - Rank Distribution of Officer Support MOC Group

MOC	WOMEN		MEN	
	1989	1998	1989	1998
COL	2 (0.4%)	3 (0.6%)	57 (2.1%)	34 (1.9%)
LCOL	4 (0.7%)	14 (2.8%)	194 (7.0%)	162 (9.2%)
MAJ	46 (8.1%)	87 (17.1%)	731 (26.5%)	562 (31.8%)
CAPT	241 (42.5%)	296 (58.1%)	1220 (44.1%)	877 (49.7%)
LT	121 (21.3%)	56 (11.0%)	328 (11.9%)	70 (4.0%)
2LT	56 (9.9%)	24 (4.7%)	117 (4.2%)	36 (2.0%)
OCDT	97 (17.1%)	29 (5.7%)	115 (4.2%)	26 (1.4%)
TOTAL	567(100.0%)	509(100.0%)	2762(100.0%)	1767(100.0%)

Table GIV/B - Rank Distribution of NCM Support MOC Group

MOC	WOMEN		MEN	
	1989	1998	1989	1998
CWO	2 (0.1%)	6 (0.2%)	218 (1.4%)	121 (1.3%)
MWO	22 (0.5%)	47 (1.7%)	625 (4.1%)	392 (4.3%)
WO	99 (2.4%)	174 (6.2%)	1269 (8.4%)	816 (8.9%)
SGT	592 (14.5%)	513 (18.2%)	3125 (20.6%)	1741 (19.1%)
MCPL	672 (16.5%)	572 (20.3%)	2704 (17.8%)	1742 (19.1%)
CPL	1651 (40.5%)	1418 (50.1%)	4944 (32.5%)	4173 (45.6%)
PTE	1037 (25.5%)	93 (3.3%)	2305 (15.2%)	151 (1.7%)
TOTAL	4075(100.0%)	2823(100.0%)	15190(100.0%)	9136(100.0%)

Average Promotion Rates

Table GV/A - Average Promotion Rates for Officer Support MOCs (1989-1997)

MOC	MAJOR		LT COLONEL		COLONEL	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
PE&R	(Note 3)	4.2%	(Note 3)	3.2%	(Note 4)	(Note 4)
PA(RC)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 4)	(Note 4)	(Note 4)	(Note 4)
CHAP(P)	(Note 3)	3.3%	(Note 3)	2.5%	(Note 3)	(Note 3)
CHAP(RC)	(Note 3)	31.5%	(Note 3)	3.4%	(Note 3)	(Note 3)
PAFF	(Note 3)	12.5%	(Note 3)	7.0%	(Note 3)	(Note 3)
LEG	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	6.0%	(Note 3)	2.7%
PADM	9.3%	10.0%	3.3%	4.9%	(Note 3)	(Note 3)
LOG	4.4%	9.2%	3.8%	5.1%	(Note 3)	5.0%
PSEL	12.2%	11.3%	(Note 3)	4.3%	(Note 3)	(Note 3)
TDEV	(Note 3)	7.4%	(Note 3)	9.7%	(Note 3)	(Note 3)
MUSC	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 4)	(Note 4)
POST	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 4)	(Note 4)
SECUR	(Note 3)	22.3%	(Note 3)	5.3%	(Note 3)	5.9%
INT	(Note 3)	11.4%	(Note 3)	7.3%	(Note 3)	3.0%
TOTAL	6.9%	10.5%	4.4%	5.2%	(Note 3)	5.2%

(Note 3 - Promotion rate was not calculated if there were less than 50 women, or men where applicable, eligible for promotion over the period.) (Note 4 - MOC does not have any positions at the given rank.)

Table GV/B - Average Promotion Rates for NCM Support MOCs (1989-1997)

MOC	SERGEANT		WARRANT OFFICER		MASTER WARRANT OFFICER		CHIEF WARRANT OFFICER	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
INT OP	(Note 3)	71.2%	(Note 3)	13.2%	(Note 3)	5.4%	(Note 3)	8.8%
MP	11.9%	15.1%	5.1%	5.6%	(Note 3)	17.5%	(Note 3)	7.9%
ADMIN CLK	9.4%	12.2%	4.8%	5.5%	7.6%	10.1%	(Note 3)	5.3%
FIN CLK	20.1%	20.9%	3.6%	7.0%	6.7%	9.0%	(Note 3)	8.6%
PERI	(Note 3)	18.7%	(Note 3)	4.8%	(Note 3)	31.5%	(Note 3)	5.9%
COOK	3.3%	6.6%	2.7%	6.1%	(Note 3)	9.9%	(Note 3)	12.7%
STWD	(Note 3)	10.9%	6.8%	5.7%	(Note 3)	16.1%	(Note 3)	7.6%
MUSCN	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	0.8%	1.7%	(Note 3)	7.3%	(Note 3)	10.8%
POST CLK	(Note 3)	9.8%	(Note 3)	2.8%	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)	(Note 3)
SUP TECH	8.6%	10.3%	3.2%	5.0%	9.3%	12.8%	0.8%	3.9%
AMMO TECH	(Note 3)	9.1%	(Note 3)	11.3%	(Note 3)	9.8%	(Note 3)	5.2%
TFCTECH	7.3%	13.5%	(Note 3)	7.5%	(Note 3)	21.1%	(Note 3)	11.6%
MSE OP	2.9%	5.9%	(Note 3)	8.2%	(Note 3)	17.2%	(Note 3)	10.3%
TOTAL	9.8%	11.1%	4.0%	5.8%	7.7%	12.2%	3.4%	6.9%

(Note 3 - Promotion rate was not calculated if there were less than 50 women, or men where applicable, eligible for promotion over the period.)

Average Attrition Rates

Table GVI/A - Average Attrition Rates for Officer Support MOCs (1989-1997)

MOC	FEMALE	MALE
PE&R	9.7%	13.7%
PA(RC)	(Note 5)	6.7%
CHAP(P)	3.8%	8.1%
CHAP(RC)	(Note 5)	12.1%
PAFF	13.0%	5.8%
LEG	4.1%	3.5%
PADM	6.2%	9.0%
LOG	8.4%	8.2%
PSEL	5.0%	7.4%
TDEV	7.4%	6.6%
MUSC	(Note 5)	10.5%
POST	(Note 5)	8.4%
SECUR	9.2%	8.8%
INT	2.9%	4.0%
TOTAL	7.8%	8.0%

(Note 5 - Attrition rate was not calculated if there were less than 50 women in the total strength of the MOC over the period.)

Table GVI/B - Average Attrition Rates for NCM Support MOCs (1989-1997)

MOC	FEMALE	MALE
INT OP	(Note 5)	5.1%
MP	10.8%	8.4%
ADMIN CLK	7.1%	7.7%
FIN CLK	7.0%	8.5%
PERI	12.8%	11.9%
COOK	9.5%	8.3%
STWD	15.0%	8.4%
MUSCN	12.1%	9.9%
POST CLK	8.8%	10.1%
SUP TECH	7.3%	6.5%
AMMO TECH	8.2%	6.0%
TFCTECH	7.0%	8.1%
MSE OP	8.4%	8.9%
TOTAL	7.8%	8.0%

(Note 5 - Attrition rate was not calculated if there were less than 50 women in the total strength of the MOC over the period.)

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A 1989 Canadian Human Rights Tribunal ordered the Canadian Forces to open all areas of employment, with the exception of submarine service, to women within ten years. Although restrictions on the employment of women in the Canadian Forces were removed almost immediately after the 1989 Canadian Human Rights Tribunal decision, the downsizing efforts of the Regular Force have limited significant progress in female representation rates. To properly understand how female participation in the Canadian Forces has changed since 1989, other factors such as enrolment, training, occupational distributions, career progression, attrition, attitudes towards gender integration, and harassment must be examined. The aim of this report is to provide a quantitative and qualitative analysis of these factors affecting gender integration in the Canadian Forces.

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